THE EFFECTS OF SUSTAINED SILENT READING AND WRITING UPON THE READING AND WRITING PROFICIENCY OF ALASKAN NATIVE/INDIAN NINTH GRADERS

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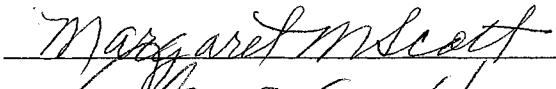

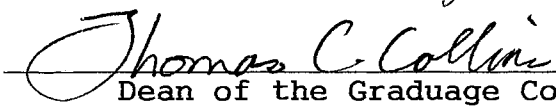

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CHAPTER I

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Introduction

There is a literacy crisis in the United States when one out of five adults does not read or write well enough to handle the sophisticated literacy demands of today's technological society (Adams, 1990; Mikulecky & Drew, 1991). According to Adams (1990), these numbers are increasing by approximately 2.3 million each year. Thus, it is imperative that our schools focus on literacy strategies that encourage proficient reading and writing.

For the most part, by the time students reach high school very little is systematically done to help those who are low readers or to encourage further reading proficiency (Stallings, 1986). Not surprisingly, the national statistics indicate that students are being graduated who have little or no literacy skills. As a result, DeConcini (1988) reported that there are an estimated one million teenagers who will enter the workforce unable to read above the third grade level.

Within this general population resides the aboriginal peoples of North America, the Native Americans. Recent statistics attest to the fact that nationwide, Native

Americans are suffering educationally as demonstrated by the highest dropout rate among all ethnic groups. The national statistics show that among 1980 school sophomores Native Americans dropped out at the rate of 29.8% with Hispanics at 18%; Blacks at 17%; Whites at 12.2%; and Asian Americans at 3.1% (Center for Education Statistics, 1986).

More recently, these figures are also reflected in Alaska where, like their counterparts in the Lower '48, Alaskan Natives/Indians are not faring very well in the public school system (Alaska Native Commission, 1994). The Commission reports that in Alaska, 22 of the 54 school districts have student populations of 75 percent or more Alaska Native/Indians with 29 of the districts containing student populations of 50 percent or more. In many of these school districts up to 30 percent of Native/Indian children in elementary school are academically below grade level in reading. In grades 7 through 12, the figure reaches over 40 percent. In urban areas, about 60 percent of Alaskan Natives/Indians entering high school do not graduate while in rural areas only 12 to 15 percent do not graduate. However, the high rural graduation rate is countered by much lower than average student achievement levels (Alaska Native Commission, 1994). For example, the Alaska Native Commission (1994) reported that students in 20 of the 54 districts scored on average below the 22nd percentile in either reading or language arts at the 4th, 6th, or 8th grade levels. Alaskan Natives/Indians constituted about 87 percent of the children in those districts. Nineteen of the

20 lower-performance districts had populations that were 60 to 98 percent Native/Indian students.

Sitka, Alaska, where Alaskan Natives/Indians comprise 20.9% of the total population, and where this study was conducted, reflects this nationwide problem. In 1993, the dropout rate among Natives/Indians in Sitka High School was 48% (Native Education Taskforce, 1994). Thus, it would appear that many Alaskan Natives/Indians and the general Native American population are not having a successful educational experience.

Statement of the Problem

Minimal research in literacy has focused on Native Americans and none has targeted Alaskan Native/Indian responses to Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (USSR) and Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Writing (USSW) as possible instructional approaches to improving literacy. Therefore, the problem to be investigated in this study relates to the effects of USSR and a combination of USSR with USSW upon the reading and writing proficiency of Alaskan Native/Indian ninth graders.

Significance of the Study

Meeting cultural, or minority, literacy needs is highly significant within a pluralistic society. However, with some exceptions, most of the research involving reading and writing has focused on the majority population which is predominantly EuroAmerican, and very little has been

directed toward the issue of reading and writing proficiency among Native Americans.

Furthermore, since it is known that reading enhances language proficiency (Devine, 1988; Goodman, 1986; Krashen, 1993) and that many Native American students use English as a second language or have limited knowledge of standard English (Maker, 1989; McDermott, 1985; Cattey, 1980), a successful literacy program may facilitate personal language growth in English. Accordingly, USSR and a combination of USSR with USSW will be explored as two possible literacy programs that facilitate and enhance reading and writing development.

Quantity and Quality of Reading

Because it provides for uninterrupted blocks of reading time, USSR can be a valuable reading component to both the quality and quantity of reading necessary for proficiency to develop. Hansen (1987) writes that reading takes time, and readers need long, unhurried blocks of time. These blocks of time allow for both the quality and quantity of reading required for meaningful reading to occur.

Students select what they read. Students are allowed to choose their own reading material in USSR. In implementing USSR, it is imperative that students be permitted to self-select their reading material, allowing for independent reading that closely conforms to the reader's spoken language. Thus, USSR additionally accommodates for quality of reading since the reading

content is an extension of the individual reader's spoken language (Smith, 1985; Goodman, 1986; Krashen, 1993). Students are more comfortable with the reading material because, as a result of self-selection, the content is more apt to apply to the reader's spoken language. Smith (1985) writes that we can learn to read without a great deal of difficulty if we have learned to understand spoken language. Spoken language provides the base for understanding print because it is a link between verbal and visual expression (Goodman, 1986); conversely, if the print does not conform to our spoken language, comprehension is impeded.

Spoken language is driven by the need to communicate, and written communication naturally follows in order to share thoughts and ideas with others who are not present (Hubbard, 1986). When the written language is an expression of our own personal language, the reading content also becomes more significant because it includes our personal experiences. Thus, the content will make more sense, and as long as the content makes sense we will continue to learn to read by reading (Smith, 1988, 1985).

Authentic reading occurs. USSR increases the time spent in the actual reading process rather than in artificial reading (i.e., doing workbooks, worksheets); engaging in actual reading leads to quality reading. For instance, Arlin and Roth (1978) found that increasing reading time significantly increased total reading scores; therefore, the quantity of reading can lead to increased quality of reading. Krashen (1993) stated that the quantity

of reading enhances the improvement of spelling, knowledge of grammar usage, personal reading comprehension, and writing style. Furthermore, he added that vocabulary development and the quantity of reading positively correlate with vocabulary power better than anything else.

Unfortunately, in many of our schools, there is not enough provision for quantity of authentic reading time. According to Anderson (1985) elementary students engage in reading for only about seven minutes a day. During the formative school years, when reading is crucial to learning, seven minutes a day is inadequate for the construction of sufficient word knowledge necessary to develop reading proficiency. Additional studies indicated that the ratio of the act of reading to the instruction of reading should be at least as high as 80 percent reading and 20 percent instruction; nevertheless, in many school classrooms, the reverse is a more likely occurrence (Berglund & Johns, 1983; Long & Henderson, 1973; Mork, 1972).

Quality of reading also has to do with personal attitude and interest. Arlin and Roth (1978) wrote, "As interest increases, attention increases. As attention increases, time-on-reading increases. As reading increases, comprehension increases" (p. 204). In regard to positive attitude, Mathewson (1976) suggested that acceptance of the material being read, which is crucial to USSR, plays a major role in sustaining attending behavior.

Reading is relevant. We know that quality reading more readily occurs when the content not only makes sense but is

relevant as well (Goodman, 1986). Reading must be relevant, or meaningful, for the reader to actively participate in the reading process. Goodman (1986) wrote that reading becomes relevant when the content can be connected to the reader's reality. He said that relevance to prior knowledge and background experience provides the basis for comprehension and allows the reader to connect new knowledge with prior knowledge and experience. USSR may provide the relevance because the reader selects the material related to her cultural background and experiences.

Relevance additionally helps the reader to make sense from the content. If he cannot make sense from the content, he will read only what is required or not at all. Minimal reading occurs when the student is consistently required to read meaningless content in school that is unrelated to personal life experiences and interests (Smith, 1988, 1985). As a result, the act of reading becomes a chore and is not an enjoyable process. Consequently, many minority students are aliterate; they have the ability to read but have chosen not to read. Choosing not to read decreases reading proficiency, and choosing not to read at a young age can hinder progress in reading throughout life.

On the other hand, choosing to read can increase reading proficiency. For example, in a response to a student questionnaire, the Alaskan State Department of Education (1994) reported that over 50% of Alaska's 4th, 6th, and 8th grade students reported reading outside of school almost every day. The average scores for those

students who reported they read books, magazines, newspapers, or comics almost every day outside of school were 17 to 21 percentile points higher than those students who read only once or twice a week.

To summarize, USSR provides for both quantity and quality of reading. It provides for quantity of reading by accommodating the reader's oral language through self-selection of reading material and the provision of blocks of uninterrupted time necessary to interact with the content. Quantity of reading leads to quality of reading since USSR increases spelling, grammar usage, comprehension, and word knowledge.

Quantity and Quality of Writing

Writing in the form of USSW provides for both quality and quantity of reading and writing by giving us uninterrupted time to think. USSW additionally frees the writer to express herself without undue concern over mechanics and content. It also facilitates the reading process since when we are writing, we are reading, and reading increases both reading and writing proficiency (Smith, 1983).

When we write, we read. Although the exact relationship between the two processes of reading and writing are not yet readily apparent (Harris & Sipay, 1990), it is clear that in order to write, we must read. Frank Smith (1983) concluded that it is only through a specialized type of reading that we learn to write a specific genre.

For instance, in order to write poetry, we must read poetry. Furthermore, he argued that this type of specialized reading is accomplished primarily without explicit instruction. He explained that writing is so complex that while practice and feedback may help to polish writing skills, they cannot account for the actual acquisition of writing. Writing acquisition, according to Smith (1983), occurs only as a result of reading. He wrote, "...now I know where the knowledge resides that writers require. It is in existing texts; it is there for the reading" (p. 560).

Smith (1983) additionally asserted that as a result of the text already being available, deliberate formal analyses is unnecessary; all that is needed is that the person readily engage in the reading process. Although Smith (1983) noted that there is the need to write in order to gain proficiency, he concluded by saying that, "They must read like a writer, in order to learn how to write like a writer. There is no other way in which the intricate complexity of a writer's knowledge can be acquired" (p. 562).

Krashen (1984) additionally supported the thinking that when we are writing we are reading by stating that voluntary pleasure reading contributes to the development of writing ability. Like Frank Smith, Krashen (1993) is convinced that reading and writing acquisition can occur without formal instruction. He wrote, "Reading is the only way, the only way we become good readers, develop a good writing style, an adequate vocabulary, advanced grammar, and the only way we

become good spellers" (1993, p. 23).

Kenneth and Yetta Goodman (1983) further pointed out that while readers need not write during reading, writers must read and reread during writing. Reading, according to Goodman (1986), is language and what is true for language must apply to reading. Thus, when we are writing, we are reading and actively engaging in language.

Heys (1962) reported that, as a result of his experiment with two eleventh-grade classes, the way to learn to write was not by writing but by reading and concluded that writing supported the reading process more than it developed the writing process. After reviewing five studies that looked at the effect of writing frequency on writing improvement, Hunting (1967) also concluded that writing aided reading more than it aided writing development.

Research also points out that reading is enhanced by writing (Heys, 1962; Hunting, 1967; Straw & Schreiner, 1982). For example, Straw and Schreiner (1982) found that syntactic knowledge expressed through writing is a major contributor to successful reading comprehension. Therefore, writing is a valuable component that clearly supports reading proficiency and when we are writing, both reading and writing proficiency develop.

Blocks of uninterrupted time are reserved. However, reading alone is not sufficient for developing writing proficiency; blocks of time must be reserved for writing (Bamberg, 1978). USSW, or journal writing, provides for quality and quantity of writing because uninterrupted,

sustained blocks of time are set aside for personal writing.

Understanding what has been read requires an incubation time for assimilation and accommodation. Readers need time to think (Hansen, 1987) and writing about what we have read helps to clarify our thoughts concerning the content; it gives us time to think. Gage (1986) defines writing as:

> ...thinking made tangible, thinking that can be examined because it is on the page and not in the head, invisible floating around. Writing is thinking that can be stopped and tinkered with. It is a way of holding thought still long enough to examine its structures, its possibilities, its flaws. The road to a clearer understanding of one's thoughts is traveled on paper. It is through an attempt to find words for ourselves in which to express related ideas that we often discover what we think. (p. 24)

Reading and writing are basic components of literacy and yet, similar to the results found in reading research, the amount of time spent in writing in school is quite low. For the most part, the writing tasks are not authentic, not a reflection of genuine activities required in day-to-day living (Applebee, 1981; Langer & Applebee, 1987). Mechanical activities such as short-answer, multiple choice, or fill-in-the-blank are more the norm, implying results that cannot be readily applied to real world demands.

Writers are freed from concern over mechanics and content. When writing in journals, students not only are given uninterrupted blocks of time to write, but also do not

have to be concerned with content or mechanics. If they wish to go back and revise, it is only a matter of crossing out unwanted material and adding new; thus, pre-writing strategies are encouraged.

Stallard (1974) found that when comparing the writing behavior of good senior high school students with poor senior high school students, that time spent in pre-writing encouraged good writing habits, supporting the process of contemplation and helping to clarify the purpose of the writing. He also found that good writers tended to revise significantly more than poor writers. He additionally found that good writers ponder more both during and after the completion of their first drafts. Therefore, USSW accommodates the type of writing behavior that leads to writing proficiency.

Writers can write for pleasure. USSW encourages writing for pleasure since journal writing is not graded; it is a time of free self-expression, allowing the writer to tinker with ideas and their expression. Thus, journal writing encourages a positive attitude which Stallard (1974) also found differentiated the good writer from the poor writer. In addition, he also found that good writers also read their writing more. He reported that when writing content is of personal interest, students are more apt to go back and read it during the shaping and re-shaping of ideas, further supporting the notion that when we are writing, we are reading.

Thus, USSW provides for both quantity and quality of

writing and enhances reading proficiency, because when we are writing we are reading. USSW additionally gives us time to think by allowing for uninterrupted blocks of quality time. It provides for quality by freeing the writer to concentrate on content without being unduly concerned about mechanics.

USSW further encourages writing for pleasure thereby aiding in the development of a positive attitude toward reading and writing.

Combining Reading with Writing

USSR and USSW can encourage good reading and writing strategies by providing for both the added quantity and quality of time necessary for reading and writing proficiency to develop. As a result, combining reading with writing is a natural process that allows for both quantity and quality literacy activities (Mason, McDaniel, & Byron, 1974; Salvatori, 1985; Tierney, Soter, O'Flahavan, & McGinley, 1989).

Mason, McDaniel, and Byron (1974) found that coordinating writing content with reading content produced the most significant gains among first graders. According to Salvatori (1985), integrating reading with writing inspired readers to be active, evaluative, and enthused which, in turn, encouraged reading with a purpose.

Even when the activities tended to mirror artificial conditions, Tierney, Soter, O'Flahavan, and McGinley (1989) found that when reading was conjoined with writing, the

students were more apt to think more critically than when reading was combined with knowledge activation or answering questions. Tierney et al. (1989) explained that the 137 undergraduate students who participated in the study were required to undertake tasks that were artificially constrained because they were asked to generate a draft, read an article, answer questions related to the article, revise the first draft, and then answer debriefing questions related to the task, all in one sitting of 75 to 105 minutes. The researchers concluded that although these time constraints were not realistic and are not common in real reading and writing conditions, the benefits of conjoining reading with writing were obvious in that the combination of the two processes fostered critical thinking.

Thus, combining reading with writing encourages students to be more enthusiastically involved in both processes and to think critically while doing so.

Cultural Factors

Language factors related to oral communication, word knowledge, semantics and syntax coupled with differences in cultural values can combine to inhibit reading and writing proficiency (Cattey, 1980; McAreavey, 1975; Davidson, 1987; Kaulback, 1984; More, 1986; Maker, 1989; Kirschenbaum, 1989; Carrell, 1991, 1988; Verhoeven, 1988; Hinds, 1990; Krashen, 1993, 1989; Pritchard, 1990). Nevertheless, quality reading and writing may additionally occur through USSR and USSW by accommodating cultural differences regarding language

proficiency and values through self-selection of reading material and the time to silently read and write without interruptions and evaluations.

Standard English is an issue. The issue of standard English proficiency is a consideration when faced with minority populations. For example, Alaskan Natives/Indians comprise 22.2% of the total population in Alaska with fully 10.1%, or one-half, of their population considered to be bilingual (Summary of Alaska's Public School Districts, 1992-1993).

In the Alaskan boroughs, which are the equivalent of counties in the Lower '48, Native languages are still spoken and when they are not, a simplified form of English is prevalent. For example, there are 3,646 Natives in the North Slope Borough with 2,647 persons five years and over speaking a language other than English and 630 who do not speak English "very well" (U.S. Dept. of Commerce, 1993). This means that approximately 90% of the Native people in the North Slope Borough express difficulty communicating in standard English (SE). Furthermore, across the State of Alaska, fully 50% of the Alaskan Native population prefer to speak a Native language or a simplified form of English (U.S. Dept. of Commerce, 1993).

Limited English proficiency (LEP) relative to simplified English or English as a second language (ESL) is not unique just to Alaskan Natives/Indians; it is also common among Native Americans across the United States. Many researchers report that a major reason for poor school

performance among Native Americans is related to poor language processing (Bates. 1982; Cattey, 1980; McAreavey, 1975; Davidson, 1987; Kaulback, 1984; More, 1986; Maker, 1989; Kirschenbaum, 1989). In addressing the issue of language proficiency, Carrell (1991) contended that reading comprehension in a second language is affected by both first language reading ability and second language proficiency. Thus, the reader's preferred mode of linguistic communication and second language proficiency can significantly affect the quantity and quality of reading.

Furthermore, syntax and oral proficiency can also affect comprehension (Verhoeven, 1988; Hinds, 1990; Carrell, 1988). For instance, many Aleuts find it difficult to understand written English because they speak using a different sentence construction, have a limited English vocabulary, and use Aleutian terminology that does not always cross over into English (Geoghegan, 1944; B. Shangin, personal communication, December, 1993).

The language spoken by the Aleuts who reside on several islands of the Aleutian Chain, the Pribilof Islands, and the Alaskan Peninsula involves a syntax that is quite different from English syntax. According to Geoghegan (1944), Aleut syntax is usually arranged in the following order: 1) conjunction, interjection, or pronoun; 2) genitive (e.g., prepositional phrase); 3) nominative (e.g., relating to the subject of the verb); 4) accusative or dative (e.g., direct object of the verb); 5) gerund; 6) adverb; 7) personal verb or participle. In addition, due to words that were

nonexistent in their language, it continues to be difficult to give a translation that captures the true meaning of the text. For example, the word "sin" does not exist in Aleut (Geoghegan, 1944). According to Geoghegan (1944), a direct syntactic translation from Aleut to English of The Lord's Prayer would read:

> For us Father who thou art heavens on them, thy name it-to-be exceedingly praised; thy daylight it-to-draw-near; thy-desires they-to-be-done heaven on-it also earth on-it; of-food its-desire to-us give thou today; also our debts to-us cache thou away, those-who we also when-having-been-done to-us debtors we-cache-them-away; also us do-not-thou-allow-to-be-taken, but deceit from-in-it us rescue-thou. Thy-daylight, thy-strength, also thy-exceeding-eminence times to-all because-they-are having-been-done. Amen. (p. 86)

Thus, it is readily apparent that direct translation of Aleut syntax and vocabulary into written or spoken English renders the Lord's Prayer almost incomprehensible to a speaker of English; a similar experience among the Aleuts occurs when they try to understand English.

Cultural differences are accommodated. Speaking in a second language often affects how written text is comprehended. USSR may improve second language proficiency by indirectly facilitating word knowledge (Krashen, 1993). Krashen (1989) wrote, "Reading is not simply a way to develop vocabulary, spelling and other important aspects of [second language] competence, it is the only way. We have

no choice" (p. 455).

Different cultural values may also affect comprehension when the reader places a different emphasis and value on the content (Pritchard, 1990). For instance, the idea of kinship among the Yup'ik Eskimos is very different than the concept of kinship among Caucasians. The terms "mother" and "father" among the Yup'ik could also refer to aunts or uncles and sometimes cousins (T. Andrew, personal communication, October, 1993). Thus, unless the reader has a clear understanding of the rules governing kinship within a society, comprehension may be hindered.

Therefore, while differences in cultures can contribute to comprehension of text and writing performance, consistent allowances for the time and the freedom to silently read and write on matters of personal choice without being evaluated can greatly enhance the quality of reading and writing. Thus, standard English proficiency improves as students are increasingly exposed to different values and ways of expressing them through what they read and write.

In summary, the significance of this study related to the implementation of USSR and USSW as indirect instructional procedures in order to increase reading and writing proficiency by providing for cultural differences among a unique population, Alaskan Native/Indians.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were applied for this study:

Alaskan Natives -- Alaska's indigenous people. They are

divided into five major groupings: Northern Eskimos (Inupiat); Southern Eskimos (Yuit); Interior Indians (Athabascans); Southeast Coastal Indians (Tlingit/Haida); and Aleuts (Aleutian Islands).

American Indians -- A term used interchangeably with "Native American" (Tonemah & Brittan, 1985).

Native Americans -- A general term that encompasses all aboriginal peoples within U.S. borders (Tonemah & Brittan, 1985).

Reading Proficiency -- The ability to read comfortably with understanding and enjoyment as well as the willingness to participate in the reading process to increase personal learning in and out of school. Reading proficiency involves the personal development of reading comprehension and vocabulary, as well as a positive attitude toward reading itself (Foertsch, 1992).

Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (USSR) -- In Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading, everyone, including the participating teachers as well as the students individually select something of their own choice to read, and then they read for a definite period of time without interruption in a relaxed atmosphere where there is no pressure to perform. No reports or comprehension checks are required and no records are kept. USSR is sometimes referred to as free reading or recreational reading (Krashen, 1993).

Pure USSR -- USSR that is not used in conjunction with any direct instructional procedure. For purposes of this study,

USSR will be treated as a form of indirect instruction under the premise that we learn to read by reading when the content is self-selected and interesting (Smith, 1985).

Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Writing (USSW) -- In Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Writing, the teachers and students write without interruption for a specified amount of time on matters of personal choice. No reports or writing assessments are required and no records are kept. USSW is sometimes referred to as journal writing (Holt & O'Tuel, 1989).

Writing Proficiency -- Writing proficiency will be defined as the desire to write as demonstrated by a personal willingness to readily engage in the writing process. For purposes of this study, it involves the awareness and resultant application of written language relative to content; organization; word choice; sentence structure; and writing conventions such as grammar, capitalization, punctuation, spelling, and paragraphing (Spandel & Stiggins, 1990).

Pure USSW -- USSW is a form of journal writing that is not used in conjunction with any direct writing instruction. It is treated as a form of indirect instruction under the premise that when we are writing, we are reading (Smith, 1983).

Summary

In light of the national academic performance of Native Americans relative to literacy and high dropout rates,

educators must find ways that provide for positive literacy experiences. Both reading and writing are essential components of literacy and yet no research exists that directly addresses the effects of USSR or a combination of USSR with USSW among Native Americans, and, more specifically, among Alaskan Natives/Indians.

When we are reading, both writing and reading proficiency improve; however, to become lifelong readers, reading must be personally relevant, meaningful and enjoyable. It has meaning when we connect the print with our spoken language, personal experiences and prior knowledge. It is relevant and enjoyable when it pertains to our personal interests; however, the quality of literacy is hindered when there is insufficient, uninterrupted time to read and write and when the reading and writing material are irrelevant.

Thus, the significance of this dissertation related specifically to the context in which meaningful reading and writing may readily occur during the school day among Alaskan Native/Indian students.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

A review of the literature clearly reveals that both good readers and writers read for pleasure, read widely, and enjoy reading; it additionally indicates that good writers profit more by frequent reading than they do by frequent writing (Krashen, 1993, 1984; Foertsch, 1992; Kletzien & Hushion, 1992; Smith, 1983; Stotsky, 1983; Donelson, 1967; Heys, 1962). Although inconclusive, the research also shows that combining reading with writing increases reading proficiency by improving comprehension and word knowledge (Mason, McDaniel & Callaway, 1974; Bond & Dykstra, 1967; Straw & Schreiner, 1983; Holt & O'Tuel, 1989) and by improving attitude toward reading (Cline & Kretke, 1980; Holt & O'Tuel, 1989; Langford & Allen, 1983). It also may increase writing proficiency relative to improvement in spelling (Clarke, 1988); syntactic fluency (Straw & Schreiner, 1982); and overall increased knowledge concerning literary response (Hancock, March 1993; Kletzien & Hushion, 1992). The literature also suggests that culture exerts a strong influence upon how readers comprehend and interact with text (Durante & Ochs, 1986; Vareene & McDermott, 1986;

Hinds, 1990; Carrell, 1988; Pritchard, 1990; Verhoeven, 1988; Gradman & Hanania, 1991; Goodman, 1973).

Quantity of Reading

Perhaps one of the most compelling pieces of evidence supporting the idea that quantity of pleasurable reading creates successful readers was a report written by Foertsch (1992) in conjunction with the National Center for Educational Statistics, The Nation's Report Card: Reading In and Out of School. It was based on a national reading assessment of 4th, 8th, and 12th graders in 1988 and 1990. According to Foertsch, the assessments centered around an interactive view of reading that looked at factors affecting comprehension such as text, the reading environment, and the backgound experiences the reader brings to the process. As a result, it was possible to examine the relationships between student reading achievement and various background factors, permitting the researchers to relate reading performance to one or several factors at one time.

There were several major findings. First of all, the quantity of reading done in school is positively related to reading achievement. For example, at all three grade levels, those students who reported reading more pages each day in school for homework had higher average reading achievement than those who did not. In addition, 12th graders who reported more frequent reading of novels, poems, or stories for school assignments had higher reading proficiency. Finally, the quantity of reading that students

do out of school is also positively related to reading achievement. Across all three grades, those students who reported more frequent reading outside of school had a reported higher average reading achievement. Finally, 8th and 12th graders who read for fun in their spare time had higher average reading achievement.

USSR as a Model for Quantity of Reading

Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (USSR), as it is explained by Hunt (1970), can provide for both quality and quantity of reading. Hunt is considered the first to introduce the concept of USSR in the schools beginning in the 1960s (Levine, 1984). Hunt (1970) defined USSR as, "The essence of reading power; the ability to keep going with ideas in print. (p. 150). He stressed the idea that uninterrupted time must be allowed for quality reading to take place because it allows for the quantity of reading needed for proficiency. USSR also provides for the quantity of practice needed at all grade levels in school by encouraging good reading habits outside school (Levine, 1984).

In addition, USSR provides for personal choice of meaningful reading material (Moore, Jones & Miller, 1980). Students, according to Hansen (1987), will become independent readers if teachers will allow them the autonomy to self-select their own reading material. Self-selection encourages successful reading since readers have a natural tendency to purposefully choose books that interest them.

Because of the high interest level, they will also pick books of various difficulty levels which helps them to know they are becoming more proficient in their reading since there are new words and concepts which much be understood in relation to the topic of interest.

Studies indicate that reading for meaning has a significant effect upon vocabulary and grammatical improvement (Krashen, 1993, 1989). In various studies summarized by Krashen (1993), subjects were asked to read anywhere from a short passage to entire novels and to focus on the meaning. Krashen (1993) reported in his summary that Nagy, Herman, and Anderson (1985) using elementary students and passages from textbooks, found that students may acquire a word from one exposure within a five to twenty percent range. Consequently, Krashen (1993) concluded that the more we read, the more our word knowledge grows. He additionally concluded that vocabulary acquisition is not an all-at-once process; rather, as words are processed while reading them in context as opposed to reading them in word lists such as spelling lists, word knowledge will continue to steadily increase in small increments as long as we are engaged in meaningful reading.

McCracken (1971) clearly explained how a quality USSR program is implemented. He listed six rules that should be carefully followed: 1) Each student reads silently; 2) Teachers model the process by reading during USSR time: 3) A wide range of materials must be available, and students should have reading material with them when USSR commences;

4) A timer should be used so that everyone clearly knows when to begin and end; 5) The students should be heterogeneously grouped in whole classes or more; 6) No reports or records of any kind should be kept for grading purposes. According to McCracken (1971), the establishment of USSR indicated to the readers that they have the right to read and that the reading process is a valuable contributor to the learning process.

Berglund and Johns (1983) and Noland (1976) posited that false assumptions exist concerning quantity of reading. They claimed that reading is overtaught and underpracticed. An example of overteaching is when the teachers require students to fill in phonics worksheets without the benefit of applying their phonics knowledge to the natural reading process.

Berglund and Johns (1983) pointed out that many students can fill in the worksheets perfectly but are unable to understand what they are reading. They linked USSR to quality practice, stating that it provides the uninterrupted time necessary to construct meaning because students are personally participating in the natural reading process. They called it providing, "...the means for students to build power in silent reading" (p. 534), and they noted that silent reading is important in that it allows low-powered readers the chance to read without fear of being corrected, which is a normal occurrence during oral reading.

Research is inconclusive. However, research involving USSR described mixed results. While several studies

reported significant effects upon reading attitude and reading achievement, (Kornelly, 1993; Cline & Kretke, 1980; Holt & O'Tuel, 1989; Langford & Allen, 1983; Leinhardt, Zigmond, and Cooley, 1981; Saragi, Nation & Meister, 1978; Oliver, 1973) others reported no significant effects (Manning & Manning, 1984; Summers & McClelland, 1982; Wilkinson, Wardrop & Anderson, 1988; Leinhardt, Zigmond, & Cooley, 1981; Mickulecky & Wolf, 1978; Oliver, 1976; Evans & Towner, 1975).

Studies reporting positive effects. In research that reported significant effects upon reading achievement or attitude, Cline and Kretke (1980) described a three-year study involving 249 junior high students in a city-wide USSR program. There was one treatment group of 111 students in one school which had participated in USSR for six years. Two control groups consisting of 138 students came from two junior high schools which had a comparable student body but which had not participated in USSR. After performing 84 F tests, they found there was no significant difference regarding reading achievement; however, the treatment did make a difference regarding an improvement in reading attitude. They felt there was no significance related to reading achievement because the district had already scored well above national norms in reading.

Langford and Allen (1983) reported a study examining attitude and reading achievement with 250 fifth and sixth grade students. One hundred and nineteen subjects participated in the experimental groups, engaging in USSR

for 30 minutes every day for six months. The control group of 119 students did not participate in USSR. Using t tests to analyze the data, they reported conflicting evidence regarding the results of the attitude surveys. While the students did not report a positive change in attitude, the teachers did. The attitudes did not change significantly when the two attitude instruments implemented in the study were compared; however, the teachers who participated in USSR and who completed the Rowell which is a teacher-based observation assessment, reported improved attitudes in favor of the USSR group. Using the SORT to measure reading achievement, the researchers found a significant increase in reading test scores of children participating in USSR.

Holt and O'Tuel (1989) conducted a 10-week study using mainly USSR with some USSW among 201 predominantly black seventh and eighth grade students who came from a low socioeconomic status and who were reading two or more years below grade level. There was a control group and an experimental group for each grade. Both groups received a combination of reading instruction using a basal series with the treatment groups additionally receiving USSR and USSW. USSW involved journal writing where the students self-selected what they wrote. The seventh grade treatment group scored significantly higher on measures of reading vocabulary and comprehension and attitude toward reading. The eighth grade treatment group showed significant gains in reading vocabulary and writing.

Studies reporting no significant effects. There were

some studies that reported no significant effects upon reading proficiency. Manning & Manning (1984) discussed their research involving 24 teachers and 415 fourth grade students. The researchers compared four models of recreational reading relative to reading achievement and attitudes. Teachers were asked to conduct their usual developmental reading activities for one hour per day with an additional thirty minutes per day of recreational reading. The study lasted for one school year. They found that students who were involved in a peer-interaction model where students interacted with their peers about what they were reading, and the individual teacher-student conferences model where they discussed their readings, received significantly higher scores ($p < .01$) in attitude than those who participated in USSR or the control group.

Those who participated in the peer-interaction model obtained significantly higher scores ($p < .01$) in reading achievement than the other three groups. They concluded that additional attention and research should be conducted in USSR because the USSR group showed significantly less gain in reading attitude and reading achievement scores than the students in the other two models.

Summers and McClelland (1982) conducted a five month program of USSR in British Columbia with about 1400 fifth, sixth, and seventh graders. There were treated and nontreated groups, nonrandom assignment of groups, and pretest and posttest measures. Raw scores were aggregated across gender, class and grade. The treatment was

implemented for five months in which USSR time was incremental. That is to say, the students began participating in USSR for small periods spaced throughout the week and gradually moved to 20 to 25 minute periods four or five times a week. Unfortunately, even in calculating the average, this researcher found it difficult to determine just how much approximate time was spent in USSR. Their data, however, showed no significant differences in average covariance adjusted mean scores for the USSR treatment group in either reading achievement or attitude.

Triggered by results from another study conducted by Stallings (1980), who compared silent reading with oral reading among secondary remedial reading students and who found that positive gains were associated with time spent in oral reading rather than silent reading, Wilkinson, Wardrop, and Anderson (1988) felt that a separate analysis of Leinhard's Zigmond, and Cooley (1981) research was merited.

Leinhardt's et al. (1981) often cited results suggested that silent reading was more beneficial than oral reading. The primary intent of the original study conducted by Leinhardt et al. (1981) was to examine evidence regarding which was more effective regarding reading achievement: oral reading, silent reading, or indirect reading. Indirect reading was defined as any activities assumed to be related to reading but not directly involving print such as discussing a story, listening, writing, or circling pictures with a common phonetic element. Their research involved 11 elementary classrooms with a sample of 105 identified

learning disabled students between the ages of 6 to 12 years old. Using statistical multiple regression analysis, positive effects were found for silent reading over oral or indirect reading.

Interestingly, this is the only study that this researcher could find which directly stated how much silent reading was necessary to benefit the reader. Leinhardt et al. (1981) wrote, "...these results suggest that an average of one minute per day of additional silent reading time increases posttest performance by one point. An increase of five minutes per day would be equivalent to about one month (on a grade-equivalent scale) of additional reading achievement" (p. 355).

Instead of implementing the causal model used by Leinhardt et al. (1981), Wilkinson, et al. (1988) undertook their analysis using linear structural equation modeling. Their findings were contrary to the original study; they believed there was no evidence that silent reading had an effect on students' reading achievement. As a result, they concluded that entry reading level accounted for the differences in achievement.

Using three distinct states of statistical analysis, Leinhardt et al. (1981) found that the students' entry-level ability, which was determined through pretesting, "...had a significant direct effect on time allocated to silent reading but no such effect on time allocated to oral or indirect reading" (139-140). They believed that the original researchers had not taken this information into

account in their analysis. Therefore, they incorporated measurement error into the model which, they reported, more adequately controlled for the initial abilities. As a result, silent reading did not demonstrate a significant effect on posttest performance. There was even the slightest indication that oral reading may have been more effective on final reading achievement. In addition, Wilkinson's et al. (1988) results also called into question the interpretations regarding the relationship between time spent in reading and reading achievement.

How Much Quantity Increases Reading Proficiency?

Reported results from the research are unclear as to how much USSR is actually needed to increase reading proficiency. Although the duration of each study is reported in weeks, months, and years, researchers consistently do not disclose the actual hours and minutes spent in USSR. For example, a study recently conducted at Mitchell High School in Colorado Springs, Colorado, Kornelly (1993) demonstrated the use of USSR in conjunction with English instruction in junior and senior high school classes. Reading comprehension pre- and post-measured by the Nelson Denny improved by 1.9 grade levels which was nearly four times more growth than in the control group. Attitudes also improved. While Kornelly (1993) reported that the study lasted for eighteen weeks, he omitted specific data involving how often the classes met and their duration in hours or minutes, making it impossible to estimate the actual amount of time engaged in USSR.

When estimating the approximate time accumulated in USSR from data presented in the studies, this researcher found great differences. For example, Holt and O'Tuel (1989) implemented USSR and USSW in conjunction with traditional basal instruction for ten weeks among seventh and eighth graders. It was estimated that about 10 hours was spent in USSR with about 6 hours and 40 minutes calculated for USSW. They reported significant gains in vocabulary, reading comprehension, attitude, and writing. Leinhardt et al. (1981) found that by increasing USSR to five minutes a day, reading grade equivalency could increase about one month.

In another study, Oliver (1973) researched the effect of high intensity practice among fourth, fifth, and sixth graders on reading comprehension using USSR for four weeks. The treatment group received up to 30 minutes daily of USSR with an added 30 minutes daily of USSW and self-selected activities (SSA). Again, estimating the time from the data presented, it was found that about 6 hours and 15 minutes for USSR revealed a gain of three months for the USSR group and a gain of two months for a control group using only traditional basal direct instruction. Both groups gained more than the standard error of measurement for the Gates MacGinities.

Three years later Oliver (1976) conducted a twelve week study with fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students. He added a student reading attitude questionnaire but otherwise stayed with the original 1973 study design. From the data

given, twenty hours of USSR was estimated for the USSR treatment group. Ten hours of USSR were estimated for the second group that received a combination of USSR and USSW combined with Sustained Silent Activities (SSA). The second group accumulated about twelve hours of USSW/SSA. Although there were positive benefits related to attitudes as reported by both students and teachers, there were no actual reading gains.

In the previously mentioned Manning & Manning (1984) study among fourth graders, an estimated eighty hours of USSR during one school year was calculated. Additionally, Evans and Towner (1975) in their ten-week study among fourth graders found no significant difference in reading skills between groups. Their treatment group used USSR for an estimated sixteen hours as a means of practice, and the control groups used a selection of workbook exercises for the same amount of practice time. Both groups received one hour of daily reading instruction using the Ginn Reading 360 basal series.

Mikulecky and Wolfe (1978) actually found a decline in reading achievement and attitude among seventh grade students. Their study was for nine weeks among developmental readers who had been placed in reading classes. Again, in estimating the time, the control group received only skills instruction for approximately thirty hours; the treatment group received about thirty hours of skills instruction with about 6 hours of added USSR. Although both groups declined ($p < .05$), there was less

decline in the USSR group. There were no significant differences in attitude between groups. Mikulecky and Wolf (1978) believed that the declines related to reading achievement measures were the possible result of standard error of measurement or from a possible ceiling effect related to reading achievement measures. They believed that better readers scored well on the pretest with little room for growth on the posttest. They stated that the declines were probably not educationally significant since the reading attitude measures ranged from less than two points to a high of over ten points. The only class in either treatment group that experienced a decline of more than two points on both measures, was the class that had expressed dislike for the course throughout the study.

Krashen (1993) said that a general time allotment of between five to fifteen minutes per day is the best indicator for significant results to occur in USSR, since this amount of time was effective in 41 studies involving in-school programs from the first grade through high school. In thirty-eight of the studies reported, Krashen described the students doing as well or better in reading comprehension tests than students given traditional skill-based reading instruction. He noted that the longer the study's duration, the more students improved. He additionally referred to studies in USSR that reported gains when they related reading content to personal choice of material.

In another effort to connect reading time with reading

proficiency, Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding (1988) correlated children's out-of-school activities with time spent in reading over a period of about eight months. One hundred and fifty-five fifth grade students were asked to report on how much time they spent in activities such as listening to music, eating dinner, playing a sport, doing homework, reading comics, reading mail, reading newspapers and magazines, and watching television, and reading a book. Reading books was the out-of-school activity that proved to have the strongest association with reading achievement.

They also found that the child who was at the 90th percentile on the Metropolitan Achievement Test spent nearly five times as many minutes per day reading books (as opposed to other literary activities such as reading newspapers, comics, magazines, and mail) as the child at the 50th percentile, and over two hundred times as many minutes per day reading books as the child at the 10th percentile. As a result, the researchers concluded that book reading was a significant predictor of reading proficiency. However, there was no report involving specific time spent in reading.

Teachers played a significant role regarding the amount of book reading children do out of school. Teachers who promoted reading would assure access to interesting books at all reading levels. They would use incentives, read aloud to the children, and provide time for them for reading during the school day. Students who received this kind of encouragement from the teachers read 3.6 times more than the

class that did the least reading.

In summary, these studies indicated that USSR may or may not increase reading proficiency, depending on the study design and type of data analysis. However, the actual quantity of time needed in USSR for improvement in reading proficiency remains vague. Although many variables should be considered such as the design of the study, instruments of measurement, data analysis, length of study, subjects participating in the study and other factors, the question still remains regarding how much actual USSR time is sufficient for reading proficiency to improve. For one study, Holt and O'Tuel (1989), ten hours appeared sufficient when used in conjunction with direct teaching procedures; but for another study, Manning and Manning (1984), eighty hours was apparently not enough.

Quantity of Writing

Although the studies indicate that quantity of writing may or may not increase writing proficiency, uninterrupted, sustained blocks of times must be made available for meaningful writing (Atwell, 1987; Hansen, 1987; Petrosky & Bartholomae, 1986; Allen, 1982; Cunningham & Cunningham, 1976).

USSW as a Model for Quantity of Writing

Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Writing is frequently referred to as journal writing. For purposes of this study, implementation of USSW followed the same guidelines found in

USSR as offered by McCracken (1971) and reported in a study implementing USSW by Cunningham and Cunningham (1976): 1) Students write silently in their own personal journals for a given amount of time; 2) The supervising teacher models the writing behavior; 3) Participants make sure all writing materials are on hand; 4) A timer is used; and 5) The journals are not graded.

Journal writing allows for quantity of writing by providing for consistent, specified times for entering personal thoughts or responses to learning content (Holt and O'Tuel, 1989). Journal writing additionally encourages students to begin to believe in themselves as writers by allowing for freedom to experiment with writing technique, style and thoughts without having to worry about being graded or criticized (Anderson, 1993). As so aptly put by Yellin and Blake (1994), "Writers keep journals; journals are the life-blood of writing. Through journals, writers explore their thoughts, discover their topics, and try out new techniques" (p. 292).

Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Writing (USSW) gives the students quality time where they are not interrupted and where they are free to write on whatever topic they choose. Hancock (March 1993) wrote that journal writing allows students the freedom to, "...transcend summary and explore other pathways to response if allowed to write continually while in the process of reading a text" (p. 466). She also contended that journals link writing to the reading process by elevating reading to an active process of personal

meaning-making where students can explore their thoughts and discover reactions to the reading content. Consequently, students become increasingly more independent as they learn to interact with a book on his or her own terms through journals.

Wells (December 1992/January 1993) explained that journal writing appears to foster reading development because freewriting where students are not graded for mechanics or content provides the time to: 1) critically reflect on what has been read; 2) make connections with prior knowledge and life experiences; 3) allow for retelling; and 4) demonstrate and recognize metacognitive processes by personal monitoring of the understanding of the content.

Studies where quantity of writing increases writing proficiency. Some studies indicated that quantity of writing can improve writing proficiency. For example, in research presented by Lokke and Wykoff (1948), two experimental college English classes were matched with two control English classes. The only major difference between the groups was that the experimental groups wrote from 32 to 34 themes during the semester and the control groups wrote sixteen themes. They found that with less formal or classroom instruction in grammar, punctuation, and spelling, the experimental groups compared favorably with the other groups. Therefore, they concluded that with the method of double writing, where students would write 32 themes instead of 16 for the semester, student failures could be reduced 66

percent with student improvement increasing by 60 percent.

The implementation of whole language in the classroom increases the quantity of writing with positive results. As explained by Varble (1990), whole language as an approach to teaching writing, encompasses the idea that students spend at least 30 minutes a day, four days a week in the composing process, thus learning to write by writing.

Varble (1990) examined 248 second and sixth graders. Each grade had a whole language and traditional writing component. Although there was no demonstrated improvement in the quality of writing regarding the correct use of mechanics of second graders taught by either approach, and there was no difference in writing samples of sixth graders taught by either approach, second graders taught by the whole language approach wrote better with regard to meaning and content.

Reporting on the results of a survey conducted among incoming college freshmen, Bamberg (1978) found that the amount of time provided in high school for learning to write was important. Freshmen entering college were more likely to meet the college writing standards if they had more opportunity to learn expository writing in high school. Along these same lines, McQueen, Murray, and Evans (1963) similarly found that extensive writing in high school best prepared students for successful writing in college.

In research involving senior high school students, Stallard (1974) reported findings indicating that good student writers demonstrated different writing behaviors

when compared with a control group. Good student writers spent more time in pre-writing and in the amount and type of revisions made. There was a distinct difference in attitude. Many of the good writers said they wrote for pleasure while most students in the comparison group did not. Stallard also found that good writers tend to read their writing more and revise more as a result.

Studies where quantity of writing does not increase writing proficiency. Some studies pointed out that we may not learn to write by frequent writing. The question of how much writing and what kind of writing improves quality of writing is unsettled. Heys (1962), couching the quantity of writing within the "theme-a-week" context, conducted an informal study in 1958 with two eleventh-grade classes. One class wrote a theme a week for the school year while the second group was excused from practically all composition work; instead, the second group engaged in increased reading in and out of school. At the end of the study, both groups had improved in their ability to write. However, he concluded that the class that had done little or no writing had actually made the greater improvement.

Somewhat disquieted by the results, Heys (1962) designed a more precise experiment in 1962 in which he involved eight high school classes where two classes represented each grade level. The first group wrote a theme a week which was corrected by the teacher and revised or rewritten by the student. The second group wrote on the average of a theme every third week. In addition, they

spent one period each week reading in-class books. The study lasted for one school year. The Sequential Tests of Educational Progress (STEP) was used in pre- and post-evaluations of writing along with readers to subjectively score pre- and post-compositions.

The conclusions were: 1) Frequent writing was more effective in grade 12 than in the three lower grades; 2) Frequent writing yielded greater improvement with those groups who initially had lower scores than with middle or high groups in pre-test scores; and 3) Students with the initial lower scores performed better than the other groups in the areas of content and organization. Although the research did not confirm the effectiveness of a theme-a-week, the surprising result to Heys (1962) was that the reading groups consistently outperformed the writing groups in both measures. Heys wrote, "Except for some seniors (but not all) and except for some low groups (but not all) and except for the area of content and organization (but not always), we got consistently better results from those students in reading classes" (p. 322).

Therefore, he tentatively concluded that, "For many students, reading is a positive influence on writing ability" (p. 322). He further concluded that the way to learn to write as well as the ability to write well is not related to quantity of writing.

In another study where quantity of writing did not improve writing quality, Dressel, Schmid, and Kincaid (1952) found that college freshmen who were assigned to write about

131 hours over a year when compared with those who were assigned on the average of about four hours over the year that no significant differences were found between the groups.

In order to determine how much writing produces effective results, Arnold (1964) conducted a year-long study among tenth graders. He designed the study so that one group wrote three themes of approximately 250 words each semester. Another group wrote some form of a composition at least four days each week with each composition varying in length from one or two sentences to two pages or more. The third group wrote compositions of about 250 words at least once a week. Arnold (1964) reported that the results indicated no significant differences between the three groups and concluded that frequent writing practice does not in itself improve writing.

Combining Reading with Writing

The relationship of reading to writing or of writing to reading in high school, takes on new importance in the light of research conducted by Flood and Menyuk (1983). They found that developmentally, reading and writing ability become magnified as children progress through their school years. They reported that while performance in writing improved with age for high achievers, it did not for low achievers, and that high and low achieving student improved first in reading, then listening, and least well in writing.

Studies about the Relationship between Reading and Writing

Studies combining reading with writing produce mixed results. In an article that addressed research on reading/writing relationships, Stotsky (1983) talked about the influence of writing on reading by looking at two subcategories: 1) the improvement of writing through writing instruction with effects on reading; and 2) the improvement of reading through the use of writing. She also looked at the influence of reading upon writing by looking at another two subcategories: 3) those studies attempting to improve writing through reading instruction; and 4) those which attempted to improve writing through reading instruction, the use of literary models, or additional reading experiences.

In regard to the first subcategory, improving writing through writing with effects on reading, Stotsky (1983) reported that in a study conducted with high school students by Obenchain in 1971, the data indicated highly significant gains on all writing measures but did not quite achieve significant gains in reading comprehension. Referring to subcategory 2, reading improvement through writing, Combs (1979) reported non-significance regarding the effects of sentence-combining practice on reading comprehension. However, in 1980, Taylor and Berkowitz (cited in Stotsky, 1983) found that reading comprehension improved when sixth grade students wrote a one-sentence summary after a passage read from a social studies textbook.

Studies that reflect the third and fourth categories also report mixed results. Stotsky (1983) reported having found only three studies regarding the third category of writing improvement through reading instruction. One was conducted in 1935, another in 1937, and the last one in 1976. All three studies showed that additional reading may be preferable to explicit grammar study in writing improvement. She cited another three studies which demonstrated that additional reading may be more beneficial or better than additional writing practice. She reported few studies representing the fourth category, improving writing through reading instruction. For the most part, these studies showed gains either in reading or writing, but not in both. An exception was a study by Bossone and Quitman (1977). Using highly structured English courses among high school and college remedial students where reading instruction was correlated with writing instruction, the researchers reported significant effects related to both reading and writing. Stotsky's conclusion was that writing instruction for the purpose of improving reading does not substitute for reading instruction and the use of reading instruction to improve free writing also does not seem to be effective.

Nevertheless, if writing can improve reading proficiency, as some studies suggest, current theory which includes the crucial role of the teacher and which explains the relationship within an effective reading and writing paradigm must be explored and developed (Flood & Lapp,

1987). However, similar to research on reading, studies which link reading with writing also produce mixed results.

Reading with writing improves reading. In additional studies, other than Holt and O'Tuel (1989) and Oliver (1973) which have already been discussed, where reading conjoined with writing improve reading proficiency, Mason, McDaniel, and Callaway (1974) conducted a study among first-graders in thirty classes, each of which was assigned to one of five treatment groups. It was found that by encouraging students to write and to use the words in the reading content, vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension significantly improved.

Mason, et al. (1974) wanted to determine if success in other language arts could improve first-grade students' writing or reading proficiency as demonstrated by an improvement in mean raw scores from the California Achievement Test. They wanted to know whether teaching spelling to first-graders promoted growth in spelling, reading, or composition; whether methods coordinated with reading were more or less effective than methods not coordinated with reading; and, whether direct teaching of spelling was preferable to incidental teaching of spelling through written composition.

The data were analyzed using analysis of covariance. No group had a significantly higher adjusted mean raw score than Group III, indicating that teaching children to compose stories related to reading content was more effective than any of the other methods used. It was also found that the

three groups whose reading instruction served as a focus for composition or spelling outperformed the two groups whose instruction was not related to the reading content in their basals. They also concluded that incidental spelling during instruction in composition seemed to be more effective than direct spelling of words and that no spelling at all seemed to be preferable to direct spelling instruction of words not presented in reading. Thus, reading conjoined with writing improved reading proficiency.

In the famous First-Grade Cooperative Studies directed by Bond and Dykstra (1967), 27 projects were developed. Among the reading methods examined, one that had superior results among high-readiness children was the language experience approach where students' writing is directly linked to their reading (Adams, 1990). Reading is taught by having the students create their own text. A student watches as the teacher writes what he dictates. The student is then encouraged to read his own writing; thus meaningful text created by the individual student is connected to the reading process. The results of this method of linking reading with writing in a unique fashion produced improved reading comprehension.

Reading conjoined with writing improves writing as well as reading. Relating reading and spelling to invented versus traditional spelling among first graders in Canada, Clarke (1988) found that over a period of five months, children using invented spelling demonstrated improved ability in spelling and in word analysis in reading than did

children participating in traditional spelling. She noted that the invented spelling group's ability to recognize words in flash word recognition was not as significant as the traditional spellers. Also, she found that initially, it was the low achieving children who accounted for most of the gain in spelling and reading that resulted from using invented spelling.

In a study designed to compare the effects of sentence-combining, sentence-reduction, and element identification in teaching writing and their effects on reading comprehension, Straw and Schreiner (1982) concluded that sentence combining, or sentence manipulation, affected growth in reading comprehension and syntactic fluency in writing. Sentence-combining, as defined by Straw & Schreiner (1982), involved teaching students to read two or more short simple sentences and combine and rewrite them into one, longer, more complex sentence. One hundred twenty-four fourth graders participated over a period of 25 days, equaling twelve hours and fifty minutes of explicit instruction. Thus, reading and writing combined in the form of instructed sentence-combining resulted not only in improved reading comprehension but in writing as well.

Kletzien and Hushion (1992) reported a year-long study where journal writing was combined with a reading workshop format. The subjects consisted of girls and boys ranging in ages 13 to 16 who had been previously identified as not achieving at their expected grade level. During one day a week the students would receive a five or ten minute

minilesson, read for 30 minutes, and then write in their journals for 10 minutes.

At the beginning of their research in September, students had reported reading an average of 2.75 hours a week; in May they reported reading about 3 hours a week. At first, their journal writing consisted mainly of simple summaries, but as the study progressed over the year, the students began to demonstrate increased metacognitive reflections, analyses of the author's writing techniques, and evaluative comments related to issues in their reading. The authors concluded that while many remedial programs do not encourage thinking beyond factual recall, a reading workshop format encourages students to learn to respond analytically to their reading and can be a very valuable asset when helping at-risk high school students.

Studies Related to Cultural Influences on Reading and Writing

Reading and Cultural Influences

What the reader already knows is highly dependent on personal cultural experiences (Durante & Ochs, 1986; Vareene & McDermott, 1986).

Many cultural factors can interfere with schema assimilation, the ability to incorporate previous experiences and background into the reading content. For instance, the way a text is organized may cause comprehension problems because the reader may not be

familiar with the discourse structure (Hinds, 1990; Carrell, 1988; Johnson, 1981; Kaplan, 1966).

In a study conducted by Hinds (1990), it was noted that English expository text is organized from general to specific while Japanese text is organized from specific to general. He wrote, "For English-speaking readers, the consequences of this reversed arrangement of ideas in direct translations from Japanese texts is a frequent feeling that the composition is disorganized, unfocused, or ineffective" (p. 91). Hence, reading comprehension can be negatively affected due to confusion caused by the organization of textual discourse.

Cultural schemata may also affect comprehension when the reader places a different emphasis and value on the content (Pritchard, 1990). For example, in a study conducted by Pritchard with thirty proficient 11th grade readers from the United States and thirty comparable readers from Palau, Micronesia, it was found that different reading strategies were used with text that was culturally unfamiliar.

According to Pritchard (1990), the reader may employ inappropriate reading strategies because the values associated with those strategies are distinct from what is being expressed in the reading content. When the materials were culturally familiar, the readers were more likely to use strategies such as: reading ahead, confirming or disconfirming an inference, relating a stimulus sentence to a previous portion of the text, visualizing, using

background knowledge of the discourse format, relating the content to personal experience, and predicting what might happen next.

On the other hand, when the material was culturally unfamiliar, the readers would employ such metacognitive strategies as consciously realizing that they were losing concentration when failing to understand portions of the text and consciously beginning to focus more on individual words. Additionally, they had to consciously accept ambiguities by skipping unknown words, formulating questions, and suspending judgement. They also had to gather more background information; reread passages more often; paraphrase to aid comprehension; and use context clues to interpret a word or phrase. Thus, their processing strategies affected their level of comprehension.

Pritchard (1990) also concluded that comprehension is further affected because readers may lack the relevant schemata which will result in fewer connections, faulty interpretation and evaluation of the text. Moreover, because the subjects made significantly more distortions when retelling what they had read, he felt that when relevant and meaningful schemata were lacking, recall was significantly affected. In other words, reading culturally unfamiliar materials required more work on the part of the reader and may seriously affect comprehensible input. Thus, processing strategies, and consequently, the level of comprehension, can be negatively affected due to the inability to associate pre-existing knowledge with incoming

data. In short, the emphasis that a reader places on the content due to cultural differences can affect comprehension.

Other cultural factors that can hinder comprehension relate to attitude and values. For example, different cultures value different cognitive processes. Field and Aebersold (1990) report that American schools place great value on analysis in the teaching of reading which involves a decoding process. Moroccan instruction, for example, emphasizes rote and oral memorization, involving more of a whole word processing strategy. Thus, if instructional methodology is foreign to the student's accustomed way of learning, greater stress is placed upon the learning process and the reader may quit in frustration.

Cultural attitudes that do not value literacy greatly influence comprehensible input. Shieffelin and Cochran-Smith (1984) found in their study with people from Papua that personal interest in reading is hindered when the first culture is nonliterate. Cultural differences as they relate to oral language proficiency and the structure of the preferred language also affect meaningful interaction with the text.

While it must additionally be noted that the ability to read in the first language strongly determines a reader's success in the second language (Goodman, 1973; Mott, 1981), most readers do not begin reading in the second language with the same initial proficiency that first language readers bring to the reading activity (Gradman & Hanania,

1991). First language speakers have already developed a phonological system (Singer, 1981); their syntax conforms to the language of the text (Berman, 1984); and their vocabulary is well developed (Cooper, 1984). Therefore, so as not to tax the individual reader's threshold of linguistic competence which involves the ability to understand and retain what has been read, Devine (1988) recommended that large supplies of reading materials that are related to the students' interest level and that are independent of instructional level should be available.

In a longitudinal study conducted by Verhoeven (1988), it was found that during the first two grades, both word recognition and reading comprehension appear to be most strongly influenced by children's oral proficiency in the second language.

Speakers of a second language can increase their word knowledge by reading. In the Clockwork Orange Study conducted by Saragi, Nation, and Meister (1978), adults read Burgess' novel, A Clockwork Orange. The book, which had a dictionary in the back, contained about 240 words of Russian slang called "nadsat." The researchers asked the subjects to read the book in their own time, and at the end of the reading, they were told they would be given a test of comprehension and literary comprehension. Results from a multiple choice test covering 90 "nadsat" words indicated that subjects had gained an average of 45 words just by reading the novel.

In replicating this same study among adult second

language acquirers, Pitts, White, and Krashen (1989) found similar results with a seven percent gain in vocabulary.

Writing and Cultural Influences

As in reading, cultural influences related to personal life experiences, beliefs, values, and culturally acceptable ways of expressing things combine to affect writing performance (Bates, 1982; Groves, 1980; Galvan, 1986; Norton, 1987; Kizza, 1991; Fox, 1992; Smith, 1992; Rubin, 1990; Feehan, 1989; Taborek & Adamowski, 1984).

Bates (1982) found that because Eskimo children live in isolated regions, they lack appropriate knowledge of western literate society. Teachers unprepared to recognize these factors cannot assume that students understand basic concepts such as "word" and "letter." In preparing them for writing, teachers must be aware that these basic concepts should be introduced before asking them to write.

In a study conducted by Peggy Groves (1980), it was found that content, syntax and composing behavior relating to their culture affected writing performance among 15 ninth graders in Micronesia. She also incorporated two case studies into her research. As a result, she found that the one student who was not familiar with western culture displayed notable differences in content, syntax, and composing behavior when compared to another Micronesian student who was more familiar with western culture.

Galvan (1986) reported that the first language significantly affects writing patterns in the second

language. He also concluded that first cultural thought patterns affect writing performance in the second language. In an ethnographic study he conducted among 10 Spanish-speaking bilingual/bicultural graduate students who had lived in the United States for an average of 19 years, Galvan found that their English compositions were recursive and halting. He concluded that their writing was controlled by their first language and cultural thought patterns.

Norton (1987) also concluded that cultural thinking patterns affect writing patterns in second language. Norton found major writing differences between Korean and American essayists. The results from his study indicated that Korean writers preferred sequences which moved from specific-to-general while American writers used sequences moving from general-to-specific. He concluded that American writers tended to be more deductive and that Korean writers preferred inductive organization of content.

In a study conducted by Kizza (1991) where Black English (BE) among college students was affecting writing performance, it was concluded that bidialectalism was achievable as long as the Black students were made aware that they were making mistakes in their use of written Standard English (SE). Students had to be explicitly taught that there were real differences between SE and Black English. She concluded that confusion was more apt to be a result of dialect rather than intelligence and recommended that personal conferences be implemented in composition classes because they were more effective than remedial

classes.

Along the same lines as Kizza's (1991) study, Rubin (1990) noted that cultural rhetorical patterns were demonstrated in the second language. He found that ESL learners were not always aware that these patterns showed in their writings. Rubin described how they taught them to integrate their first language patterns into more acceptable patterns in English, indicating that when the ESL students were made aware of the problems, they were able to correct them.

In a five-year study with 16 non-western graduate students, Fox (1992) found that writing was culture-bound in that cultural values were naturally inherent in the writing content. For instance, Fox asked seven professors of international students to define "analytical writing." Then the international students were interviewed concerning how they felt about the demands of American professors upon their ability to write analytically. Fox found that second culture students valued indirectness and left the reader to infer more from their writings while the professors expected them to be more direct and explicit. She also found that second culture students were unwilling to criticize the writings of others because it was inappropriate to do so in their own cultures, making it difficult to do the assignments requiring critical analysis.

Smith (1992) reported social and linguistic differences. In her ethnographic study with two Hispanic students attending the University of Texas at El Paso, she

found that when one of the students was unable to meet class writing assignments, rather than tell the professor, he would excuse himself by saying he was ill or had to take someone to the hospital. He told her that this behavior was more culturally acceptable in that it showed more respect for the professor's authority rather than telling him he was unable to meet the deadline.

Smith (1992) explained that differences became apparent when she observed that both students were uncomfortable when asked to write peer criticisms. Both students tended to be more timid and complimentary than the non-Hispanics.

Feehan (1989) also found that oral differences affected essays and impacted student-teacher interactions. In contrasting conversational patterns of the first language with patterns required by essay form in English, Feehan concluded that teachers should recognize that the writing of second language learners is a process of interpretation, translating everyday conversation toward academic discourse. He noted that the ESL students were not aware that conversation and written discourse were different when applied to writing essays.

Taborek and Adamowski (1984) noted that because native Chinese students in Canadian universities had minimal experience in creative or free writing, they demonstrated a great deal of difficulty when asked to write creatively in English.

To summarize, there are many cultural influences affecting reading and writing performance. Reading

comprehension and vocabulary as well as written compositions are affected by different oral and written linguistic patterns, cultural values and thinking patterns, world views and personal experience with the second culture.

Summary

While culture impacts both reading and writing proficiency, a review of the literature indicated that reading and reading in combination with writing could significantly improve reading and writing proficiency in both first and second languages. USSR and USSW provide for the quantity and quality of time necessary to improve reading and writing proficiency by allowing for personal choice of reading and of writing content within a nonintrusive environment where the behavior is modeled not only other by peers but by participating adults as well.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This research focused on the effects of USSR and a combination of USSR with USSW upon the reading and writing proficiency of Alaskan Native/Indian ninth grade students. More specifically, the researcher examined whether two independent variables, USSR or a combination of USSR with USSW, would significantly increase students' reading comprehension and vocabulary, grammar usage and writing performance. Reading and writing attitude were additionally researched relative to the two independent variables.

A description of the subjects, instructional setting, instrumentation, experimental design, procedures, hypotheses and related questions are presented in this chapter.

Subjects

The subjects consisted of 54 ninth grade students attending Mount Edgecumbe High School in Sitka, Alaska. One subject was Caucasian and the rest were Alaskan Natives/Indians (Table I, p. 65). The sample was highly representative of the Alaskan Native/Indian population since it typified the five major aboriginal cultures in Alaska:

Tlingit/Haida, Aleut, Inupiat (Northern Eskimo), Yup'ik (Southwestern Eskimo), and Athabascan Indians.

TABLE I

DEMOGRAPHICS OF SAMPLE POPULATION BY CULTURE, AGE AND GENDER

	NUMBER OF SUBJECTS		
	USSR	USSR/USSW	CONTROL
CULTURE			
Aleut	4	2	4
Athabascan	3	4	2
Yup'ik	6	7	4
Inupiat	1	3	3
Tlingit	3	1	4
Chippewa	1	0	0
Cherokee	0	1	0
Caucasian	0	0	1
AGE			
13	1	3	0
14	11	10	13
15	5	4	4
16	1	1	1
SEX			
Female	11	9	13
Male	7	9	5

Since the primary intent of this research was to focus on minority students, specifically those Alaskan Natives/Indians attending high school, and, secondly, how they might respond to USSR or a combination of USSR/USSW as an indirect approach to improving reading and writing

proficiency, Mount Edgecumbe High School (MEHS) was selected because there is no other school in the State of Alaska that has such a highly representative cross-section of Alaskan Native/Indian students. The students at MEHS additionally were selected because the school administration and participating teachers approved of the study. Their approval permitted research that otherwise could solely be accomplished by costly travel throughout rural Alaska where most Alaskan villages are not connected by roads and can only be accessed primarily by bush plane. During the winter months, when this research was conducted, access is additionally hampered by extreme inclement weather.

Throughout the school year, the students live at MEHS, a state-funded boarding school in Alaska. The 1993-1994 student body was comprised of 89% rural Alaskans and 12% urban, uniting 139 communities and 42 school districts from within the State of Alaska (Alaska Department of Education, 1994, February). It was composed of 85% Alaskan Natives/Indians, 12% whites, and 3% other ethnic groups. Yearly enrollment is approximately 275 students, encompassing grades 9-12.

MEHS has its roots in Indian Education which is the result of United States Federal policy historically administered by the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA). In 1947 two BIA schools, Wrangell Institute and Eklutna Vocational School, were closed as MEHS in Sitka, Alaska began operation. During 36 years of BIA administration, nearly 10,000 students attended MEHS, and over 3,900 earned

diplomas (Knapp and Steele, 1993). Due to changes in Federal policy regarding its stance on Indian education, the BIA withdrew its jurisdiction over MEHS, and the school was consequently closed in 1983 only to reopen in the Fall of 1985 under the sole jurisdiction of the State of Alaska. It is common knowledge throughout the State of Alaska and especially within the Native community that individuals chosen to attend MEHS, will be highly respected in their own community and will be better prepared to meet the demands of the outside world both educationally and socially.

Beginning in the 1870s, the original mission in Indian Education followed Federal policy to assimilate aboriginal peoples, namely Native Americans, into mainstream Western culture and thought (Szasz, 1984). The current mission of MEHS continues to demonstrate the original BIA mission and is reflected in the school's innovative and demanding curriculum. For example, all students attend core classes during the school day. Study halls are available only after school and evenings to supplement regular instructional time. Activities such as driver education, work study, shop, and music are scheduled after the regular academic day. Coursework in vocational education is experiential as well as academic. Emphasizing entrepreneurship, students target Pacific Rim markets through an international trade program in which they process, package, and market Alaska smoked salmon. Students have traveled to China and Japan to survey market potential as product development is closely linked with an assessment of foreign market demands.

Computers and related technology are an integral part of the educational program and are used extensively throughout the school by the students.

Instructional Setting

This study was conducted among high school freshmen for 16 weeks during Fall Semester, 1993. It consisted of two treatment groups and one control group with 18 subjects per group. The USSR group would meet during the third hour of the school day to participate in USSR for about 50 minutes every Monday, Wednesday and Friday. The USSR/USSW group would meet during the fourth hour to participate in a combination of 25 minutes of USSR and 25 minutes of USSW every Monday, Wednesday and Friday. Thus, the time spent in USSR accumulated to approximately 2.5 hours per week for the USSR group, or 40 hours throughout the 16 weeks, with the USSR/USSW group spending 1.25 hours in USSR and 1.25 hours in USSW per week, accumulating 20 hours of USSR and 20 hours of USSW throughout the duration of the study. The control group accumulated approximately 40 hours of foreign language instruction throughout the semester by meeting for 50 minutes three times a week in a foreign language class.

Both treatment groups had the same supervising teacher who, in addition to teaching two social skills classes, also taught freshman health, a sophomore level health class, and a marriage and family course during the Fall semester of this study. He additionally coaches varsity girls' basketball. He has taught at MEHS for 10 years.

The classroom consisted of tables which the students shared. One wall had windows that were opened and allowed the students to look out into a scenic harbor that is surrounded by tall snow-capped mountains year round. Along with seiners and trollers, the harbor is many times filled with aquatic wildlife such as harbor seals, otters, sea lions and an occasional whale. It was a relaxed atmosphere in which the students appeared quite comfortable.Throughout the researcher's personal observations, it was obvious that the supervising teacher cared a great deal for each of his students. He had a relaxed manner and always spoke softly; there did not appear to be any discipline problems throughout the semester. Classroom teaching materials were always organized and kept in an orderly and neat fashion in cupboards that lined three walls. He organized all research materials, such as the reading logs, the reading materials, and the writing journals in a special place.

The supervising teacher used a timer for both treatment groups. The students would begin USSR at a specified time each session and would quit reading when the buzzer sounded. He modeled reading behavior by reading material of his choice throughout the USSR allotted time. During USSW, he would also model writing behavior by writing in his own journal. Both treatment groups read self-selected materials obtained mainly from the school library or from the researcher. Magazines and comics, which were provided gratis by a local business, were picked up twice a month. The subjects chose reading materials that consisted mainly

of novels, short stories, trade magazines, comics, and poetry. A running record (Appendix A), which eventually became each subject's reading log, was kept by each subject in both treatment groups. After each session, the students would enter what they had read, the genre it represented, and how many pages they read. This helped encourage each subject to compare not only what he or she was reading with what had been previously read but also to compare how many pages had been read in relation to previous sessions.

During their writing time, the members in the USSR/USSW group were instructed to use personal response journals. They were instructed not to be concerned with the mechanics of writing such as punctuation, spelling and grammar. Also, they were told that during their USSW time, they could write on anything they desired. However, a list of suggestions (Appendix B) relative to what the students might want to write about was inserted into each journal for ready access. The journals were hardbound and college-ruled with 80 sheets. They were 10" x 7 7/8" in size. For purposes of anonymity, each subject was given a personal identification number which was used on the journal in place of the name. The journals were then secured in the same classroom where the subjects participated in the study. They were used only during USSW.

Instrumentation

Three assessments were used to quantitatively measure four dependent variables: reading comprehension, vocabulary,

grammar usage and writing performance.

Quantitative Assessments

In order to measure reading comprehension and vocabulary, the Nelson- Denny Reading Test, (Brown, Bennett, & Hanna, 1981) was used. The Nelson-Denny Reading Test is a standardized, timed test consisting of two subtests, Vocabulary and Comprehension. Form E was used for the pretests and Form F was used for posttests. Both forms were statistically equated for grades 9 through 16 and can be used interchangeably. The median alternate-form reliability coefficient for vocabulary is .92. The alternate form reliability coefficient for comprehension is .71.

Forms X and Y from the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress, III, Level I, (Educational Testing Service, 1979), were used to assess grammar usage. The Educational Testing Service reports a reliability coefficient of .92 for grade level nine. The STEP tests were normed on a stratified random sample of over 200,000 students. The sample was stratified on geographic region, socioeconomic status, minority status, and rural, suburban, and urban setting. Hoyt analysis of variance measure (Nelson, 1974) indicated good internal consistency by grade level and gender within grade level.

To assess writing ability, the researcher collected pretest and posttest writing samples from each subject and used analytical scoring procedures that are recommended through the Alaska State Department of Education (Birkeland,

Entwife, & Scharrer, 1990/1991) to assess the data (Appendix C). Analytical scoring defines major characteristics, or traits, of writing; as such, it specifies criteria that describes traits that are likely to be found in real samples of student writing (Spandel & Stiggins, 1990).

Reliability is established through the use of three raters. Initially, two raters independently scored the pre- and postwriting samples using the Alaska State Department of Education's (1991/1992) suggested criteria (Appendix C). When there was a discrepancy of more than one point on any one trait, the third rater was asked to score the sample. Using the third rater's score as the ultimate decision, a final score was tallied for each individual trait. A discrepancy rate, the range between scores among the raters, was then calculated. The following formula recommended by Copeland (1984) was used in determining rater reliability:

$$\frac{\text{number of agreements}}{\text{number of agreements + number of disagreements}}$$

The results of interrater proportion of agreement, based upon the individual ratings of the raters was calculated at .90 for the prewriting samples and .96 for the postwriting samples, indicating a high degree of agreement between the ratings assigned to the writing samples.

Qualitative Assessments

Qualitative inquiry was also integrated into the study for the purpose of capturing, "...both vividness and subtlety the perceptions of the individuals being studied"

(Worthen & Sanders, 1987, p. 53). Worthen and Sanders believed that both quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible, complementary approaches depending on the questions and purposes of the study. They wrote, "The point is that evaluation is not a discipline but merely a social process or activity aimed at determining the value of certain materials, programs, or efforts" (p. 53). They continued by arguing that the rich social context of schooling should not be narrowed to one limited view of evaluation since alternative forms of evaluation provide an added dimension by which researchers can extrapolate meaningful information.

A multi-criteria approach to evaluation is highly recommended with minority students (Nieto, 1992; Langer, 1987; Neisser, 1986). Historically, Native Americans do not respond well to testing and have characteristically demonstrated problems related to cultural and linguistic differences (Tonemah & Brittan, 1985; Maker, 1989; McDermott, 1985; Cattey, 1980).

Since a positive attitude about reading and writing encourages a personal willingness to read and write both in and out of school (Foertsch, 1992), an added purpose of this study was to examine reading and writing attitude from an alternative perspective. Therefore, qualitative data in the form of an open-ended questionnaire (Appendix F) provided additional insight into the effects of each of the two independent variables, USSR and USSR/USSW, upon reading attitude. The subjects in both USSR and USSR/USSW were

asked to respond to two questions: 1) Have you found yourself more willing to read your school assignments since beginning USSR? Why? Why not? 2) Do you like your USSR time? Why? Why not? The students were given as much time as needed to respond. The number of "yes" and "no" responses were tallied and assigned a simple percentage regarding the frequency of responses.

An additional question related to whether a combination of reading with writing would improve writing attitude. Following the recommendations of Hancock (March 1993) where student responses shape their own categories, the researcher assessed the writing in the journals by seeking repeated responses for classification.

It was found that as the categories began to generate, they generally agreed with some of the options reported by Hancock (March 1993) and Wells (December 1992/January 1993). By combining and adapting Hancock's and Wells's recommended criteria for classifying responses, four major categories were found: 1) metacognitive strategies; 2) character and plot involvement; 3) literary involvement; and 4) summarization. Since many of the entries were of a personal nature, another category which is listed as "Diary" was added.

In accordance with Hancock's (March 1993) findings, subcategories were subsequently added to each major category. The number of responses per journal entry within each category are reported in Chapter 4 along with the results (Table VI, p. 103). In addition, the researcher

reported her observations as well as the supervising teacher's regarding the subjects' comments and behavior during USSW.

Design

A pretest-posttest control group experimental design was implemented in this study. According to Gay (1981), this particular design controls for all sources of internal invalidity. There were two treatment groups and one control group.

One treatment group received only USSR, while the other treatment group received a combination of USSR with USSW. The control group participated in a first year foreign language class instead of treatment; otherwise, all the subjects took the same classes. Since the supervising teacher participating in the research taught social skills, some of the 62 freshmen students were randomly assigned by the administration to one of his two social skills classes where they received treatment. The remainder of the students were assigned to a first year foreign language class which was taught by a different instructor who was not participating in the study.

Before this study began, the administration had decided to assign all freshmen students to one of three social skills classes. Therefore, it was intended that one class would be the USSR treatment group; the second class would be the USSR/USSW treatment group, and the third class would consist of the Control group. However, due to scheduling

complications and reduced enrollment, the administration decided not to offer a third social studies class, opting to place some of the freshmen students in a foreign language class.

Enrollment into either the social skills or the foreign language class was based initially on student preference. The students had been previously notified that they could register for either social skills or Japanese I. In refining the placement process to better ensure successful learning in a foreign language, the administration in further collaboration with the language teacher and the counselors, screened the students using their previous English grades; thus, ultimate assignment into the foreign language class was based on higher English grades as well as student request. As a result, some freshmen students were selected to enroll in Japanese I and were consequently assigned by the researcher to the control group. One social skills class was randomly assigned to the USSR treatment group while the other social skills class became the USSR/USSW treatment group.

Permission was received from the school administration to conduct the research. Ordinarily, the parents of the subjects sign a form giving their children permission to participate in the research. However, this was a unique situation in that students at MEHS are considered wards of the State of Alaska, meaning, in this case, that either the principal or the superintendent can legally act "en loco parentis."

After discussing the situation with the Institutional Review Board at Oklahoma State University, it was decided that Oklahoma State University would accept the principal's signature along with the researcher's and the participants'. Therefore, the principal of MEHS, legally acting in place of the intended subjects' parents, signed the permission forms. The students also were given the forms. The supervising teacher read the content out loud to the students who were asked to sign the form if they would like to participate in the study. The permission form is found in Appendix E.

In compliance with Federal regulations, Oklahoma State University policy requires approval of all research studies involving human subjects. Accordingly, this study was accepted by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) and assigned the following number: ED-94-010 (Appendix D).

Originally, all enrolled freshmen students at MEHS were slated to participate in the study. However, out of the 62 students that enrolled, eight were unable to participate or complete the study. Although all freshmen students were pretested by the researcher, two were unacceptable for the study because they had been retained and were not enrolled in the same classes as the others. In addition, three students did not want to participate in the study. Furthermore, during the course of the semester, one subject returned home, and two were unable to be posttested because they left early for the Christmas holidays. This left 54 students who were ultimately able to participate. Thus, 18 subjects remained in the USSR treatment group with 18

subjects in the USSR/USSW treatment group; the control group also consisted of 18 subjects.

Procedures

All freshmen were pretested and posttested by the researcher in their regularly scheduled English classes during the first three days and last three days of the semester.

To assess both reading comprehension and vocabulary, the Nelson-Denny Reading Test (Form E) was administered according to the publisher's directions during the first day of testing. The Nelson-Denny includes 100 items in the vocabulary section of the test. The students had 15 minutes to complete the first section of the test. They were asked to provide the correct word that most closely matched the underlined word found within a phrase provided at the beginning of the sentence. For example, the students will see:

1. A chef works with: A. bricks B. music C. clothes D. food E. statutes

In the comprehension section, which the students took immediately after the vocabulary section was completed, reading content reflected materials that are commonly used at the high school and college levels and that equally represent the natural and physical sciences, humanities, and social sciences (The Riverside Publishing Company, 1981). The students had 20 minutes to complete the comprehension section. It consisted of eight reading passages where the

students were asked to read a passage and then respond to the questions at the end. They were allowed to look back at the material if needed, but the researcher cautioned them not to take too long over one question. Of the 36 questions, 18 required a literal response, and 18 required interpretation on the part of the reader.

To assess grammar usage, on the second day of testing, the researcher administered the writing skills subtest from the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress III (STEP), Level I, Form X. The STEP is a timed, indirect measure of educational development and ability to recall and use language and symbols commonly utilized in the classroom (Educational Testing Service, 1979).

The writing skills subtest measured knowledge and recognition of effective sentence and paragraph construction. It covered spelling, capitalization, punctuation and usage. Included are items of error recognition, proper word order in sentences, sentence order in paragraphs, and best sentence recognition. Although the students were given 40 minutes to complete, the test was designed to be primarily a power test rather than a speed test so that the subjects' knowledge of the subject matter is tested rather than their speed in choosing the correct answers. Power tests have items varying in difficulty, but have such generous time limits that most students have an opportunity to attempt most or all of the items. All of the subjects completed this subtest within 30 minutes.

Data was obtained from individual writing samples to

measure writing ability. On the third testing day, the subjects were given 45 minutes and instructed to write on anything of their choice. All subjects finished in 30 minutes.

The posttesting followed the same format used during pretesting. During the last week of the study, the subjects were again tested by the researcher. However, Form F of the Nelson-Denny Reading Test was used in place of Form E, and Form Y of the writing skills subtest from the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress III, Level I replaced Form X. All the subjects finished the STEP subtest within 30 minutes. As in the pretest, the researcher also asked for writing samples on the third day of testing, giving the same amount of time for completion. The students were similarly instructed to write on anything of personal choice and completed their writing within 30 minutes. During the fifteenth week of the study, the USSR and USSR/USSW groups were given 45 minutes in their English classes to answer the following two questions: 1) Have you found yourself more willing to read your school assignments since beginning USSR? Why? Why not? 2) Do you like your USSR time? Why? Why not? All the subjects finished the questionnaire within 30 minutes.

The subjects in the USSR/USSW group also were asked to keep journals. During each of the 48 treatment sessions, they were asked to freewrite in their journals for 25 minutes after reading for 25 minutes. Freewriting allows writers to write on anything of their choice, paralleling

the concept of self-selection in USSR.

Hypotheses and Related Questions

The purpose of this study was to examine whether reading proficiency relative to reading vocabulary, comprehension and attitude and writing proficiency relative to grammar usage, writing performance, and attitude would increase among those participating in USSR and USSR/USSW when compared with a control group. Therefore, four hypotheses were examined in determining the effects of USSR and USSR/USSW. Listed according to each dependent variable, the hypotheses are:

Hypothesis I: There will be no significant increase in reading vocabulary as a result of USSR or when USSR is combined with USSW.

Hypothesis II: There will be no significant increase in reading comprehension as a result of USSR or when USSR is combined with USSW.

Hypothesis III: There will be no significant increase in grammar usage as a result of USSR or when USSR is combined with USSW.

Hypothesis IV: There will be no significant increase in writing performance as a result of USSR or when USSR is combined with USSW.

Complimentary to the hypotheses, the researcher also wanted to know if USSR or a combination of USSR/USSW increased attitude toward reading and writing. Therefore, the following questions pertained to the qualitative

research:

Question I: What is the relationship between USSR and the willingness to read?

Question II: What is the relationship between USSR/USSW and the willingness to write?

Summary

This chapter presented the methodology concerning the collection of qualitative and quantitative information used to analyze the data in this study. A description of the subjects, instructional setting, instrumentation, experimental design, procedures, related hypotheses, and questions were discussed. A total of 54 Alaskan Native/Indian freshmen ninth-graders participated in the research. Using a pretest-posttest experimental control group design, three standardized measures were used to assess reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar usage, and writing performance. Qualitative data were collected from a questionnaire to examine the subjects' attitude concerning how they felt USSR affected their school reading assignments and their willingness to read for pleasure. Additional qualitative data collected from the journals were also analyzed using subject-generated categories to determine the affects of USSR/USSW upon writing attitude.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND ANALYSES

Introduction

This study addressed the effects of USSR and a combination of USSR and USSW as a means of increasing reading and writing proficiency among an Alaskan Native/Indian high school population.

The major research questions were: 1) Does reading or a combination of reading and writing increase reading comprehension, vocabulary and attitude; 2) Does reading or a combination of reading and writing additionally improve writing specific to grammar usage, writing performance and attitude? The results of these analyses are presented in this chapter in terms of the data specific to each hypothesis or question.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant increase in scores specific to each of four dependent variables--vocabulary, comprehension, grammar usage, writing performance--with regard to either of the two treatment groups when compared to the control group. Each dependent variable was analyzed independently of the other three using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). The alpha level for each dependent variable was set at $p = .05$. All statistical

analyses were conducted using Statistix (1992) analytical software.

It was also hypothesized that there would be no significant increase in attitude toward reading and writing when comparing one treatment group with the other. Data collected from an open-ended questionnaire and journal entries were analyzed qualitatively.

To examine the data collected for reading vocabulary and comprehension, raw scores from the Nelson-Denny Reading Test were calculated and analyzed using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) with the pretest scores as the covariate. To obtain data concerning grammar usage, raw scores from the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress III were similarly examined using analysis of covariance with the pre-test scores as the covariate.

To determine the measures for writing performance, direct analytical assessments of actual writing samples were used. According to Birkeland, Entwife, and Scharrer (1990-1991), this form of assessment provides another means for data analysis. Rather than having students respond to just multiple choice questions about writing, students were asked to write. Their writing was then analyzed based on specific traits.

In scoring the data, the researcher used the following five traits recommended by Spandel and Stiggins (1990): 1) ideas and content; 2) word choice; 3) organization; 4) sentence structure; 5) writing convention. These same traits and form of assessment are highly recommended by

Birkeland, Entwife and Scharrer (1990-1991) to assess student's writing ability and are used by the writing teachers at Mount Edgecumbe High School.

Following Spandel's and Stiggins' rating criteria, each trait was initially scored separately by two raters. Each trait received a score of one to five. If there was a discrepancy of more than one point between the two raters, a third rater scored the writing in question. The third score was then used as the rating. To provide the reliability necessary for validity of scores and to avert inter-rater discrepancy as much as possible, raters who had previously received training by the Alaska State Department of Education in the use of direct writing assessment scoring procedures were chosen. In accordance, a college English professor, a high school English teacher, and a high school teacher in bilingual education consented to rate the pre- and post-writing samples. So as to further avoid rater bias, student samples were typed by the researcher. They were also number coded. The final score for each trait was calculated and then tallied using a total score from all the accumulated traits. This total score was applied in the data analysis using analysis of covariance with the scores from the pre-writing samples as the covariate.

Quantitative Data Analysis

Using an alpha level of $p = .05$ for the entire quantitative data analysis, the researcher analyzed each of the independent variables separately using analysis of

covariance (ANCOVA). The results of the analysis indicated no significant increase upon any of the independent variables--vocabulary, comprehension, grammar usage or writing performance--as a result of receiving USSR or a combination of USSR with USSW when compared with the control group.

Results and Discussion of Hypothesis I

Vocabulary. The researcher wanted to know if vocabulary would improve among those subjects receiving either 40 hours of USSR or 20 hours of USSR combined with 20 hours of USSW. To ascertain if there were any effects between the three groups, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was run on the posttest measures with the pretest vocabulary scores as the covariate (Table II, p. 83).

In the form of a hypothesis, the question was stated thus:

> Hypothesis I. There will be no significant increase in reading vocabulary as result of USSR or when USSR is combined with USSW.

The computed ANCOVA did not show significant differences between the groups $F(2,50)=1.98$, ($p = .148$), indicating that neither the USSR treatment (Pre-Mean = 19.72, SD = 9.29; Post-Mean = 27.68, SD = 9.38) nor the USSR/USSW treatment (Pre-Mean = 23.72, SD = 9.70; Post-Mean = 26.23, SD = 10.35) had a statistically significant effect upon mean posttest scores (Table III, p. 83) when compared to the control group (Pre-Mean = 27.17, 13.65; Post-Mean =

23.71, SD = 23.71). Thus, the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

Although not statistically significant, further data analysis related to the pre- and post-mean scores (Table III, p. 83) reveals that the USSR group showed a mean increase of 7.96; the USSR/USSW group showed a mean increase of 2.51; and, the control group showed a mean decrease of -0.91, suggesting that USSR possibly had a greater effect on vocabulary scores than USSR/USSW when compared to the control group which actually decreased in overall vocabulary performance.

Results and Discussion of Hypothesis II

Comprehension. It was questioned whether reading proficiency would improve relative to reading comprehension as a result of 40 hours of USSR or as a result of combining 20 hours of USSR with 20 hours of USSW. The second hypothesis stated:

> Hypothesis II: There will be no significant increase in reading comprehension as a result of USSR or when USSR is combined with USSW.

Similar to the vocabulary mean scores, no statistically significant differences between the three groups when analyzing the data using an ANCOVA (Table II, p. 83) with the comprehension pretest scores as the covariate $F(2,50)=.22$, ($p = .80$) were found, indicating that neither treatment had a statistical effect upon comprehension scores and, subsequently, reading proficiency. Thus, the null

hypothesis could not be rejected.

TABLE II

ANCOVA FOR VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION

		VOCABULARY			
Source	df	SSadj	MSadj	F	p
Treatment	2	114.71	57.36	1.98	.15
Error	50	1446.14	28.92		

		COMPREHENSION			
Source	df	SSadj	MSadj	F	p
Treatment	2	37.00	18.50	.22	.80
Error	50	4166.44	83.33		

$p < .05$

TABLE III

SUMMARY OF DATA BASED ON ANCOVA POSTTEST ADJUSTMENTS FOR VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION

Groups	VOCABULARY				COMPREHENSION			
N=54	Pretest Means	SD	Posttest Means	SD	Pretest Means	SD	Posttest Means	SD
USSR n=18	19.72	9.29	27.68	9.38	19.56	8.71	28.43	10.35
USSR/USSW n=18	23.72	9.70	26.23	10.35	24.56	7.17	27.84	10.69
Control n=18	27.17	13.65	23.71	13.98	28.89	12.22	29.80	12.64

Although statistical significance was not achieved, it should additionally be noted (Table III, p. 83) that the USSR group again demonstrated a greater mean increase of

8.87 (Pre-Mean = 19.56, SD = 8.71; Post-Mean = 28.43, SD = 10.35) than the USSR/USSW group which showed an increase of 3.28 (Pre-Mean = 24.56, SD = 7.17; Post-Mean = 27.84, SD = 10.69) or the control group which showed the smallest increase of .91 (Pre-Mean = 28.89, SD = 12.22; Post-Mean = 29.80, SD = 12.64).

Results and Discussion of Hypothesis III

Grammar Usage. The third research question related to whether there would be a significant increase in grammar usage as the result of receiving 40 hours of USSR as a treatment or a combination of 20 hours of USSR and 20 hours of USSW as a treatment. The third hypothesis stated:

> Hypothesis III. There will be no significant increase in grammar usage as a result of USSR or when USSR is combined with USSW.

Posttest scores from the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress III were examined using an ANCOVA with the pretest scores as the covariate (Table IV, p. 86) The computed ANCOVA on the total sample for increase in grammar did not show significant differences between the groups, $F(2,50)=.99$, ($p = 0.38$), indicating that the USSR treatment demonstrated no statistically significant effect upon the mean posttest scores (Table V, p. 86) relative to USSR ($M = 35.34$) and USSR/USSW ($M = 38.50$) when compared to the control group ($M = 39.12$). Thus, Hypothesis III could not be rejected.

Upon further analysis of the mean pre- and posttest

scores (Table V, p. 86), the data revealed, that although not statistically significant, the USSR/USSW group scores increased by 2.39 with the control group scores increasing by 1.18 and the USSR group scores increasing by 0.78. This suggested that possibly the USSR/USSW treatment had the greater effect upon grammar usage.

Results and Discussion of Hypothesis IV

Writing Performance. It was also questioned whether 40 hours of USSR or a combined treatment of 20 hours of USSR with 20 hours of USSW would significantly increase writing performance. Consequently, the fourth hypothesis stated:

> Hypothesis IV. There will be no significant increase in writing ability as a result of USSR or when USSR is combined with USSW.

Using an ANCOVA to analyze the data obtained from direct writing assessment measures, the researcher found that the posttest scores revealed no statistically significant increase when using the corresponding pretest scores as the covariate (Table IV, p. 86). Thus, the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

However, the ANCOVA showed a statistically significant difference between the groups regarding a decrease in writing ability $F(2,50)=3.92$, ($p = .04$). When comparing the mean pre- and posttest scores (Table V, p. 86), the USSR group showed a mean increase of .09; the Control group showed a mean decrease of -0.167; and, the USSR/USSW group

TABLE IV

ANCOVA FOR GRAMMAR USAGE AND WRITING PERFORMANCE

		GRAMMAR USAGE			
Source	df	SSadj	MSadj	F	p
Treatment	2	55.22	27.61	.99	.38
Error	50	1395.71	27.91		

		WRITING PERFORMANCE			
Source	df	SSadj	MSadj	F	p
Treatment	2	45.09	22.55	3.92	.04*
Error	50	287.33	5.75		

$p < .05$
* significance

TABLE V

SUMMARY OF DATA BASED ON ANCOVA POSTTEST ADJUSTMENTS FOR GRAMMAR USAGE AND WRITING PERFORMANCE

GROUPS	GRAMMAR				WRITING PERFORMANCE			
N=54	Pretest Means	SD	Posttest Means	SD	Pretest Means	SD	Posttest Means	SD
USSR n=18	34.56	3.97	35.34	6.01	13.19	2.56	13.28	2.11
USSR/USSW n=18	36.11	5.91	38.50	7.18	15.33	3.59	12.86	2.45
Control n=18	37.94	5.73	39.12	6.60	15.25	4.00	14.92	2.47

demonstrated a mean decrease of -2.278. Thus, when compared with the control group, the USSR/USSW group showed a significantly greater mean decrease of 2.111, indicating that the USSR/USSW treatment had an adverse effect upon writing ability for the USSR/USSW group.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative inquiry was integrated into this study. Subjects in both the USSR and USSR/USSW groups were questioned concerning how they felt about USSR. The USSR/USSW group's reaction to the writing portion of their treatment was also investigated.

An open-ended questionnaire (Appendix F) given to both treatment groups concerning their attitude toward USSR indicated that they enjoyed their USSR time during treatment and that it increased their willingness to read their school assignments as well as their enjoyment of pleasurable reading. Some also felt that USSR increased their comprehension and vocabulary.

However, in a separate analysis of the journals, the data showed a general deterioration of writing performance, suggesting an overall negative attitude concerning freewriting in journals.

Reading Attitude

Qualitative analysis using an open-ended questionnaire (Appendix F) and reported observations from the supervising teacher indicated that reading attitude increased as a result of USSR. The majority of subjects in both treatment groups felt that USSR enhanced their willingness to read school assignments and to read more for pleasure. The supervising teacher reported observing greater willingness among the subjects to participate in the reading process.

He also reported that modeling the behavior had been quite profitable for himself.

The results from the questionnaire revealed additional information about reading proficiency specific to reading attitude. When the subjects in the two treatment groups were asked if they were more willing to read their school assignments since beginning USSR, 75% of the subjects in both treatment groups responded positively.

Fourteen, or 78% of the subjects in the USSR group, responded that they were more willing to read their school assignments. For example, one subject wrote, "Yes. I have found myself more willing to read more of my homework assignments now that we started USSR. I think because I have been reading more, it [the homework assignments] makes a lots more sense since we started so I like to read more." Another subject in the USSR group responded, "Yes, I stay motivated and caught up." One subject wrote, "Yes. Reading [in USSR] made paragraphs, letters, and other literature easier to understand after reading them."

Thirteen, or 72%, of the subjects in the USSR/USSW group said they were more willing to read their school assignments because of the time they had spent in USSR. One subject wrote: "Yes, I don't worry anymore about reading my assignments now, I don't make a big deal about it." Another one said, "Yes, because I got to get to some very interesting books and then when I got to read them and got to get into reading a whole lot of stuff I think it helped me islet in my reading skills." Another subject responded,

"Yes, Because I'm used to reading it's a habit [now]," while another wrote, "Yes, because I found that reading isn't hard and it's fun." Another response was, "Yes, because it helped me to read quicker." Lastly, one of the subjects responded with, "Its ok, I think reading helps my vocab."

Two answers were directly related to comprehension. One subject from the USSR group answered, "...I think because I have been reading a lot more it makes sense more so I like to read more." A subject from the USSR/USSW group wrote, "Yes. Reading made paragraphs, letters, and other literature easier to understand after reading them."

When asked if they liked their USSR time, 16 subjects, or 88%, from each group reported positively. One subject from the USSR group wrote, "Yes, because I could enjoy books that I like to read not books that teachers assign us to read. Another USSR subject responded, "Yes. It made me read faster in my other classes. One student liked her USSR time because it was quiet, and she found it easier to read when it was quiet. Five students in this group said that they liked their USSR time because it helped them to relax. For example, one wrote, "Yes, I like reading alot of mysteryi's [sic] book. Plus, give me time to relax I like to read, but only when I'm relaxed. We should have reading all the time. Also, you could learn alot from reading." Although one student responded that he liked his USSR time, he felt that 55 minutes in one sitting was too long. He suggested that it would be better if they read for about 20 or 25 minutes.

The subjects from the USSR/USSW group reflected the same reasons as those from the USSR group, and also related to increased reading proficiency as a result of their USSR time. One subject wrote, "I like my USSR time. I am a better reader now, because of it." Another subject wrote, "I think we should read longer; I don't really like writeing [sic]. Reading should be #1."

Others in the USSR/USSW group wrote: "When I got to get into reading a whole lot of stuff I think it helped me alot in my reading skills." One subject answered, "Yes, thats [sic] about all we do and the readin goes in one ear and stays in." Another subject wrote, "Yes, because I found that reading isn't hard and it's fun. Others responded with: "Yes, It's easier to read my assignment because of the USSR program;" and, "Yes, because it helped me to read quicker."

When discussing USSR time with the supervising teacher, the researcher noted that for a variety of reasons, he felt that USSR was beneficial even to the extent that he intends to implement it in his classes the following year. He listed many positive aspects. First, the students were able to make their own selections which obviously enhanced their interest in reading. Second, he also commented that there were no behavioral problems with the subjects who participated in USSR. He said that their behavior was exceptional for students just entering Mount Edgecumbe High School, especially when compared to the other ten years that he has taught there. Third, he also felt that he could use

USSR as a constant in their self-discipline. He observed that USSR immersed them in the reading process, and noted that the subjects could see how they personally developed with regard to how much they improved in their quantity and quality of reading. He felt that not only did they get more and more into the habit of reading, but they also found themselves comparing the amount of pages they were reading with their previous sessions.

The supervising teacher also liked the consistency that USSR provided. He said, "It is not a panacea, a quick fix. The students had to hunker down and read, and they began to realize how enjoyable it could be when there is uninterrupted time with the freedom to choose what they wanted to read. I know I did; I read more books during this time than I have read in years. It was really good for me."

Writing Attitude

In determining the USSR/USSW group's response to combining journal writing with reading, the researcher conducted a qualitative analysis of the journal content. On an average, the USSR/USSW group wrote about 19 pages per individual throughout the study. Seventeen out of the 18 subjects chose to write literal summaries for the most part while one subject used the journal as a venting for personal problems and referred to her readings only twice throughout the semester.

Five common categories developed (Table VI, p. 95). The first category related to metacognitive strategies

concerned with personal meaning-making options (Hancock, March 1993). The first subcategory, monitoring personal understanding, is concerned with initial comprehension responses such as: "I like this book;" or, "This is cool." Thirteen subjects wrote 84 entries that were integrated into this subcategory. For example, one wrote: "This book is o.k. It is fabulous. The book is not too fast and not too slow." Another entry read, "I think that the book I'm reading is a book that I can read. I like the book. The author's writing keeps me interested."

The second metacognitive subcategory related to predictions. Seven subjects responded in this category. One subject wrote, "I predicted that it wouldn't be the guys sister too because there was a lot more to go in the book." Another wrote, "I think they are a group of bad guys. There were some clues in the reading that gave you the impression that the Vigils seem possibly bad! I'll have to keep reading to find out!"

The third metacognitive subcategory referred to those entries that expressed wonder or confusion. Hancock (March 1993) contended that this category was important because it often served as a bridge to understanding. Four subjects responded in this category. One entry read, "From what I read so far I am confused. I wonder if they really know what happened." One subject wrote, "I can't believe it. He gets to keep his baby. But I am happy for him."

The fourth metacognitive subcategory included making inferences. Contending that inference aids comprehension,

Hancock (March 1993) wrote that inference reflects: ". . . the effort of the reader to project introspective insights on the feelings, thoughts, and motives for behavior of the character" (p. 469). For example, one subject wrote, "I don't really know how to explain what is happening in this book [Of Mice and Men]. It was really the timing. If one thing went wrong, then everything would have gone wrong." Another entry read, "It feels like she's going to get caught."

The subjects generated 3 subcategories under character and plot involvement. The first subcategory, character interaction, refers to the reader's personal empathetic involvement with the character (Hancock, March 1993). For instance, one subject wrote, "If I was in her shoes, I don't know what I would do I would just I don't know, even thinking about it gives me pain." Referring to what he had read in a comic book, another subject wrote, "Woody Woodpecker is a bird. He is really funny. He is funny like me. I visualize him as a not very smart bird. If I was him I'd kick him out so he won't bother."

The second subcategory related to character development and showed that the reader understood who the main characters were and was aware of that understanding. For example, one subject wrote that three main characters entered the story, and then he described them. Another wrote, "Dexter is a kind of shrimpy guy. Mariann is a popular girl, Jesse is a bookworm, Glen is popular and his brother Bruce is kind of a wanna-be."

According to Hancock (March 1993) story involvement, which was the third subcategory: ". . . may reflect reactions to sensory aspects of the story and often indicate personal evaluative terms (i.e., disgusting, gross, awful, weird, neat). These responses may also reveal a growing satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the developing plot" (p. 470). As an example, one journal entry read, "It was about some kind of Eskimos (Inupiaq) buried in time under a icefall. YUCK!! But it's interesting."

Literary criticism, which is a category listed under literary involvement, should go beyond the literal retelling of a book. The student generally compared what he read with other books, authors, or literary genre (Hancock, March 1993). For example, one subject wrote, "The Stand is by Stephen King. He's such a good writer!! Well, I can't help it if I like Stephen King books. My mom would die of shock or laughter. Some of the others like V.C. Andrews but I prefer Stephen King cause he's scarier."

Although the majority of the entries were literal retellings, one subject continually praised Calvin and Hobbes by characteristically synthesizing what he had read in three or four lines. One subject used her journal as a personal diary and did not respond to anything that she had read. At the beginning of the study, one subject wrote to his teacher, soliciting responses with questions such as: "Have you ever read this book? What did you think of it?"

Three subjects connected what they had read to prior readings. For example, one wrote, "In my old school my

TABLE VI

SUMMARY OF JOURNAL RESPONSES

	Number of USSR/USSW Group *Comments	Number of Subjects Responding in Each Category
METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES		
a) Monitoring Personal Understanding	84	13
b) Making, validating or invalidating prediction	15	7
c) Expressing wonder or confusion	6	4
d) Making inferences	8	5
CHARACTER AND PLOT DEVELOPMENT		
a) Character interaction	8	6
b) Story involvement	8	5
LITERARY INVOLVEMENT		
a) Literary criticism	15	7
SUMMARIES		
a) Retellings		**17 Journals
b) Synthesis	2	1
DIARY ENTRIES		
a) Personal specific to prior reading experiences	5	3
b) Dialogue journal	2	1
c) Diary	***entire journal	3

*'Comment' refers to an entry that relates to the subcategory. It may include several lines in the journal.

**Bulk of writing related to literal retelling of reading.

***One entire journal was used as a personal diary with no responses to the reading.

teacher use to read to us. It was fun cause all we had to do was lisen [sic]. If we wanted to we could dream or something." Another responded by writing, "It is suppose to be a good book. My cousin at home read it for 4 years in a row. All the years he was going to school."

Although the researcher was able to develop some classifications from the writings, for the most part, the bulk of the entries were retellings. While Hancock (March 1993) contended that responses in journals could move beyond retellings or summaries toward more insightful thinking, this was not readily apparent in these journals.

At the beginning of the study and in an attempt to encourage higher order thinking and responses, writing prompts adapted from Hancock's and Wells's response options (Appendix B) had been placed in the journals. The supervising teacher reviewed this handout with the subjects at the beginning of the study. They were instructed to keep them in their journals for ready referral. Nevertheless, many of the subjects stated that they had difficulty in choosing a topic to write about. Periodically, the supervising teacher would review the prompt sheet, and would also volunteer other ideas; however, the subjects continued to frequently complain that they couldn't think of anything to write about when it came time for USSW. The journals began to reflect this attitude.

Toward the middle of the semester and continuing throughout the remainder of the study, the writing content in the journals began to deteriorate regarding both quantity

of writing and quality of writing. Toward the end of the semester, the entries of eleven subjects had deteriorated to the extent that there were just a few lines for each session. For example, during one freewriting session one subject wrote in sloppy handwriting, "I read about 4x4 monster trucks. Porcupine III, Long Foot, Mean Streak, are some of the names of the trucks."

At the end of the study, the researcher asked this group if they would be willing to participate in only a study using USSR. All of them raised their hands; however, when asked if they would participate in a combination of reading and writing again, sixteen said they would not like to repeat the writing portion.

The supervising teacher reflected their attitude. Although he said that he would be using USSR in all his social skills classes the following year, he felt that it would be counter-productive to combine writing with their USSR time due to the subjects' overall attitude evidenced by their general complaining when it was time to write.

Summary

Quantitative analysis using ANCOVAs demonstrated no statistically significant increases between the three groups relative to reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar usage and writing performance. The data did reveal, however, a significant decrease in scores for the USSR/USSW group in writing performance. Therefore, all four null hypotheses were retained.

Qualitative analysis regarding reading attitude indicated that 75% of the subjects in the two treatment groups, USSR and USSR/USSW, felt that they were more willing to read their school assignments. Eighty-eight percent responded that they enjoyed their USSR time. Because of his observations of the subjects during their USSR time, the supervising teacher responded that he felt that USSR was a valuable reading program and committed to implementing it in all his social skills classes the following year. Thus, self-reports from the USSR group, the USSR/USSW group, and the supervising teacher indicated that 40 hours of USSR did indeed have an increased positive effect on reading attitude as evidenced by a high percentage of those willing to read assignments and of those expressing an enhanced enjoyment of the reading process.

In determining writing attitude, the data showed that sixteen out of eighteen subjects would not like to participate in the USSW portion of the treatment condition. This attitude was reflected in the general deterioration of the quantity and quality of writing in their personal journals. It was equally substantiated by the statistical results that showed an adverse effect upon writing ability for the USSR/USSW group. Thus, writing attitude was not enhanced as a result of 20 hours of USSR and 20 hours of USSW.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Quantitatively, the results of the study indicated that neither USSR nor USSR/USSW had any statistically significant effect upon reading or writing proficiency as measured by scores in reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar usage and writing performance. However, The qualitative analysis indicated a positive effect upon reading attitude. The self-reports from the subjects in both treatment groups indicated a strong, positive response regarding the enhanced willingness to participate in school reading assignments and to participate in the reading process. In addition, the supervising teacher's reported observations of the subjects' behavior during USSR as well as his own response to modeling USSR, also indicated an increased awareness of the positive influence of USSR.

There appeared to be a negative effect upon writing proficiency. The content from the journals, the subjects' negative verbal expressions concerning USSW, the supervising teacher's observations of the subjects' unwillingness to participate in USSW for the full 25 minutes during each

session, along with the statistically significant negative results upon writing performance as demonstrated by the USSR/USSW group, all point toward an adverse effect of the USSR/USSW treatment upon writing performance and attitude.

Discussion

Effects of USSR and USSR/USSW

Reading Proficiency. For purposes of this study and in accordance with standard procedure, an alpha level of $p = .05$ was set. An alpha level of $p = .05$ is traditionally set to statistically reflect the probability of accepting a null hypothesis when it is true and thus avoid making a Type I error (Jaccard, 1983; Gay, 1981). Jaccard (1983) noted that a conservative alpha level must be set in matters of experimentation regarding life and death such as the testing of a new drug for distribution among a normal adult population. Accepting the null hypothesis when it is true is crucial to this type of experimentation. Nevertheless, Jaccard posited that social scientists have been, "...preoccupied with type I errors at the expense of type II errors" (p. 131). He contended that more conservative alpha levels may yield less powerful tests and writes that, "The argument is that for some social science research, it is hard to justify that a certain error should have the drastic character implied by a low alpha level" (pp. 131-132). He continued by saying, "It is not necessarily worse to falsely conclude that there is a difference between a mean and a hypothesized value than it is to falsely conclude that there

isn't a difference" (p. 132). Therefore, in light of the ESL and limited English proficiency issue among Alaskan Natives/Indians, it may be appropriate to consider an alpha level of $p = .15$ as statistically significant.

Language proficiency greatly affects educational performance and success. For example, testing in any form is one area where proficient language ability is essential. However, historically, many Native American students, including those who have been identified as gifted and talented, do not perform well on standardized tests when compared to a national norm of predominantly EuroAmerican students (Maker & Schiever, 1989; Langer, 1987; Neisser, 1986). Maker and Schiever (1989) pointed out that most Native American students are placed in remediation because of a low reading ability related to limited English proficiency. Kirschenbaum (1989) also addressed the language issue when he argued that few tests include high percentages of American Indians in their norms and that social and cultural experiences directly affect language proficiency required to understand the content of standardized tests. Cattey (1980) spoke to the issue of cultural differences in processing information stating that one of the major reasons for poor test performance is that Native American language processing tends to be more holistic than analytic in nature while standardized testing is more specific to analytic processing. He also talked about cultural differences related to language where many tribal peoples do not value talking, depending more on

modeling and steady eye contact as a valued form of communication.

Similarly, Kaulback (1984) wrote that Native children historically were considered innately inadequate in the intelligence needed to succeed in formal schooling. However, researchers found that the problem was inherent more in test bias that favored verbal reasoning and, discriminated against correct assessment of Native children.

Supporting Kaulback's research, McAreavey (1975) concluded that the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children and Wide Range Achievement Test of Reading discriminate against Sioux children in the comprehension and vocabulary subtests. Davidson (1987) contended that Crow children can not understand directions to tests even when available both orally and in writing because of limited English proficiency.

Since reading is inextricably intertwined with language processing (Krashen, 1993; Goodman, 1986; Smith, 1985), reading ability may be more tied to language proficiency as suggested by Carrell (1991) and Alderson (1984). Devine (1988) concurred with this position when she wrote, "...second language readers must attain a level of proficiency in the target language before there can be a genuine interaction with texts in that language" (p. 272). Therefore, it may not be remiss to consider an alpha level of $p = .15$ relative to an increase in vocabulary as being statistically significant among Alaskan Native/Indian students.

An increase in English vocabulary relative to silent reading proficiency takes on even greater significance among ESL and LEP students. As early as 1938, Gray and Holmes wrote, "Growth [in vocabulary] can be secured most effectively through wide silent reading with little or no guidance in the understanding or use of words" (p. 35). This idea is supported by recent findings discussed in Chapter 2 which indicated that vocabulary improved through silent reading (Nagy, Herman & Anderson, 1985; Saragi, Nation & Meister, 1978; Holt & O'Tuel, 1989). In addition, Ferris (1988) demonstrated that ESL students made significantly better gains in vocabulary as a result of silent reading.

Since vocabulary development increases English proficiency, gains in personal vocabulary are paramount in Native populations where English may be spoken as a second language or where there is limited English proficiency. Not only does fluent vocabulary increase the ability to communicate, but it also increases performance on standardized tests as well, allowing Native students access to school programs that are most beneficial to their personal and educational well-being. For example, Maker, Schiever, and Shirley (1989) asserted that Native Americans are not included in gifted programs because of their low scores on tests due to their limited English proficiency and low reading ability. They argued that low performance on tests places even gifted Native American students in programs for the learning disabled and that proportionately

Native Americans represent a higher percentage than any other minority in these programs. In agreement, Goodlad (1984) concluded that decisions for placement are based on language ability, and, more recently, Nieto (1992) further supported this notion when she stated that currently there are still gross inequalities in the educational system regarding language discrimination. Since we also know that comprehension is highly affected by vocabulary or word knowledge (Harris & Sipay, 1990), perhaps the poor performance in comprehension ($p = .80$) is related as well to language proficiency.

Fluency in the English language has a great deal to do with success in American schools. Because limited English proficiency relative to simplified English or English as a second language is an issue among Alaskan Natives/Indians, setting an alpha level of $p = .15$ may be more reasonable. Indeed, if that be the case, it has been shown in this study that USSR can greatly improve English fluency by facilitating vocabulary development.

To summarize, there were no demonstrated statistically significant increases in any of the dependent variables at an alpha level of $p = .05$; however, setting a $p = .15$ alpha level might have been more realistic in light of the language issue; in which case, the USSR group would have achieved statistical significance in vocabulary.

Further evidence of increased reading proficiency was demonstrated by a majority of both treatment groups who reported that they enjoyed their USSR time and that USSR

positively contributed to an increased willingness to read their school assignments.

Moreover, it should be pointed out that while not statistically significant, the mean scores for the USSR group also showed greater increases than both the USSR/USSW group or the control group in comprehension and writing performance. Furthermore, there is some indication that the USSR group may have achieved significance over a longer period of time in comprehension and writing performance. Therefore, the analysis showed that pure USSR had a positive affect on reading proficiency relative to gains in word knowledge and attitude toward reading.

Writing Proficiency. There were no significant increases specific to USSR or USSR/USSW upon writing proficiency.

It became obvious as the study continued that the subjects participating in USSR/USSW were, for the most part, not enjoying their freewriting time. This was eventually substantiated not only through the overall deterioration of the length and content of the entries but also through the demonstrated statistical negative effect upon their writing ability.

Perhaps one reason these students did not improve in their writing performance was because quantity of writing does not necessarily improve writing quality (Dressel, Schmid, & Kincaid, 1952; Heys, 1962; Arnold, 1964; Stotsky, 1983).

However, perhaps no significant gains in the writing and grammar measures as well as in the writing content in the journals occurred again due to language proficiency. In Indian Nations At Risk: An Educational Strategy for Action (1991), it is clear that Native American educators fully realize the import of quality preparation in the field of literacy. They stated that there are about 350,000 Native American children of school age with the majority unprepared to compete upon graduation because their oral, reading, and writing language development is not commensurate with that of the majority culture.

In order to meet the needs of Native students, these Native American educators recommended that schools be entirely restructured if American schooling is going to have any positive effect. They argued that there has to be a concerted effort to redefine literacy. The essential emphasis should be, according to the Task force, learning how to read, write, and speak standard English. As such, literacy takes on new meaning within a minority context. However, it is not reading and writing just for the sake of reading and writing. It must be accomplished within a context specific to each minority individual. The Task force reported that, "The task challenging Native communities is to retain their distinct cultural identities while preparing members for successful participation in a world of rapidly changing technology and diverse cultures"

(p. 1).

The Task force learned that there is a direct relationship between Native students' ability to function comfortably in society and to achieve academic success. They reported that, "When students' relationships with the larger society are strained, their chances for academic success appear to diminish" (p. 20). One of the keys, they believed, is to provide an environment where literacy becomes practical, where the students can see that there is personal meaning to reading and writing. Although there are other key factors such as literacy in the home and direct parental involvement in their children's education, they are convinced that the students will further increase their literacy skills when the schools provide an environment that emphasizes the practicality of increasing standard English proficiency.

How might a meaningful environment be developed for Alaskan Native/Indian students to increase writing proficiency? Applebee (1981) offered one suggestion as to why writing may not be meaningful. He posited that writing in and of itself is not difficult. He wrote:

> Even young children just learning to write find very little that is difficult about it. They write, typically, with great pleasure, and they write everywhere; floors, walls, and table tops are just as likely as their writing tables to bear the brunt of their excursions into written language. When the task becomes difficult is when they are asked to write in a

specified way, i.e., book reports, essays. (p. 2)

According to Applebee, it is writing to meet the demands of a particular task that makes writing difficult.

Perhaps 25 minutes of freewriting in journals at one sitting is an example of the meaningless writing Applebee described. Anderson (1993) supported this idea. He felt that as many as one-third of the journals in his classes did not reflect growth in writing ability relative to amount written, fluency, syntactical complexity, vocabulary, coherence, and fluency. Anderson found that journals appeared to be just "another hoop through which students feel they must jump" (p. 307). He recommended that perhaps educators should face the idea that journals don't work for everybody.

Journal writing may not be meaningful to Native American students for other reasons. Elsasser & John-Steiner (1977), working with Indians with limited writing ability in New Mexico, felt that the unwillingness or inability to express themselves in writing was a direct result of oppression and poverty, and that they expressed their feelings of powerlessness through silent forms of resistance which the authors called a "culture of silence."

Boloz and Loughrin (1984) believed that this culture of silence could be broken through student interactions with culture-sensitive teachers. As a result, they developed a model of the writing process based on their work with Navajo students which focuses on the concept of shared responsibility.

Barwell (1981) concluded that while there are similarities between the needs of Native and non-Native writers, there are also significant differences mainly centered around language proficiency related to cultural differences. He felt that linguistic differences created too much concern with mechanical correctness and that the lack of educational success caused great apprehension of failure. He reported that small groups and pairs in writing tended to work well within a process writing approach. In addition, Nakonechny (1984) in her research with Canadian Indians, observed that the natural way for Natives to write, because of their oral tradition, is circular as contrasted with the linear-thesis-summary approach of the European model. Thus, this research leads to the idea that Native American students do not feel free to write and if they were given that freedom, would not know how to express themselves due to the educational restraints previously imposed by a schooling environment that catered predominantly to the majority culture.

Allen (1982) has sought to overcome these differences. As a result of her extensive research since 1963 among American Indian students throughout Alaska and the Lower '48, Allen developed a teacher/student interactive model. She believed that when these students can discover who they are and that they can have something to say about it through writing, then writing becomes meaningful as a tool of empowerment, and they will freely participate in the writing process.

Allen (1982) explained that her experiment in teaching Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts began in 1963 when she was asked to teach Native American children to write. The superintendent at the Institute of American Indian Arts in Santa Fe, New Mexico, where she began her teaching, told her that some 90 tribes were represented in the school at that time. Almost all of the students used English as a second language and, "...virtually all of them used English poorly" (p. 6). As a result of her research, Allen pointed out that Native students must be taught in English in order to write in English.

In explaining her model, Allen (1982) discussed the idea that English should be taught "upside-down," emphasizing function and purpose within a cultural context before focusing on skills acquisition. She reasoned that Native students who might view the writing of English with special distrust and uneasiness would be more motivated to develop writing proficiency when they see writing as a means of saying something personal and vital, as a way of creating themselves. Writing, according to Allen, is a medium by which the writer creates his personality by discovering who he is and what it is he has to say by sorting out conflicts, establishing goals and learning to think. This type of interaction produces dignity and pride because with a fine piece of writing, the Indian student can't be "just an Indian." He has, according to Allen, seen greatness in himself manifested in a written manuscript. In this way, the student reaches for the most exact form of writing,

manipulating form and content by demanding that it meet high standards. This gives him power and control over his own life.

She recommended three specific criteria within this framework: 1) teach grammar in the context of students' writing; 2) convince students they have something important to say about life; and 3) help students write until they have said what they want to say. In summary, what is really being said is that Native students need to experience writing within a culturally-specific social context where they can create meaning through their writing that is relevant to them as authors.

Quantity and Quality of Reading and Writing

The issue of the quantity of reading and writing as it relates to quality of reading and writing should not be overlooked. Neither the USSR group nor the USSR/USSW group complained about reading for 50 minutes during each session; however, the USSR/USSW group consistently complained that 25 minutes of writing per session was too long.

Although the treatment groups responded positively concerning how participating in USSR encouraged them to read school assignments, again the question must be raised regarding how much quantity of reading is necessary for quality of reading or for reading and writing proficiency to increase. For example, Holt and O'Tuel (1989) working with a predominantly black population of seventh and eight grade students, found that about 10 hours of USSR when coupled

with traditional basal instruction improved comprehension and vocabulary scores, writing ability, and attitude. On the other extreme, in a year-long study among predominantly Anglo fourth-graders in which the subjects received about 80 hours of USSR coupled with about 160 hours of developmental reading activities, mean scores did not significantly improve.

Possibly, and especially for those who demonstrate limited English proficiency, pure USSR may require more than 40 hours for a significant increase in reading and writing proficiency. Krashen (1993) reported that the longer the duration, the more likely there will be significant gains. He recommended that most USSR programs should be at least one school year in length.

Conclusions

As a result of this study, the conclusions are as follows:

1. Reading proficiency increased with regard to reading attitude indicating an increased willingness to read school assignments and for pleasure; however, comprehension and vocabulary did not increase as a result of the two treatments.

2. Writing proficiency did not increase with regard to grammar usage, writing performance or attitude; however, the USSR/USSW group demonstrated a statistically significant decrease ($p < .05$) in writing performance and a decrease in quantity and quality of journal entries.

Limitations

The following limitations apply to this study:

1) While some of the literature suggested that USSR and USSW or a combination of USSR/USSW increases reading and writing proficiency, an important contributing factor relates to the amount of time spent in reading and writing. This study lasted for sixteen weeks with 40 hours of USSR and 20 hours of USSR combined with 20 hours of USSW;

2) This study is limited to Alaskan Native/Indians and may be transferable only to comparable groups;

3) Conceivably, a major reason the effects may not have been compatible with the research relates to the limitations regarding the ESL/LEP language factor which is common among minority populations, and, more specific to this study, Alaskan Natives/Indians;

4) Moreover, working with minority populations, especially among those cultures that are isolated from the mainstream and that have not been studied to any great extent, presents unique problems in quantitative research. The findings of this study are reflective of a particular statistical bias when the traditional approach in analysis recognizes nothing higher than a confidence level of $p = .05$ or less for acceptable, significant results. Had a higher confidence level been traditionally acceptable among researchers in the social sciences, significance may have been achieved;

5) Statistical power may also have been stronger if the

population number had been greater;

6) This study is limited by its standardized assessments where the results may have reflected inherent cultural bias;

7) The findings relating to comprehension may have been the result of the type of reading content. Schema theory posits that background experience and prior knowledge contribute greatly toward comprehension. The available reading material in this study was not compatible, for the most part, with the Alaskan Native/Indian experience in its content, discourse structure or use of language, making it difficult to connect old knowledge with new information.

8) Additional data could have been collected by interviewing the subjects several times throughout the study regarding their feelings about USSR and USSW.

Recommendations

The following is recommended:

1. This study was limited to Alaskan Native/Indian ninth-graders. Since 40 hours of USSR treatment over a period of 16 weeks began to approach significance in increasing vocabulary, it is recommended that the effects of USSR upon reading and writing proficiency be further investigated with a similar but larger population and that the duration and hours be substantially increased.

2. Furthermore, in order to determine how much quantity of exact time and duration is profitable to obtain significant effects, it is recommended that the exact

duration and time be documented in similar research.

3. In light of their educational experiences and literacy performance, it is additionally recommended that the effects of USSR upon reading and writing proficiency be pursued at all grade levels among Native American students throughout Alaska and the Lower '48. However, because of the lack of research at the secondary level, it is especially recommended that further research continue among high school populations.

4. Consideration of a higher alpha level may be more reflective of the treatments when working with minority populations demonstrating limited English proficiency or who speak English as a second language.

As previously discussed in this chapter, studies with unique populations may inherently reflect two biases: cultural and statistical. Some cultural bias in assessing performance is unavoidable (e.g., standardized tests, language); however, researchers have more control over statistical bias. Instead of accepting traditional, conservative alpha levels (e.g., $p = .05$), it may be more appropriate when working with minority populations for educational researchers to examine results using a more liberal alpha level (e.g., $p = .15$). Hence, their quantitative analysis and reported results may be more sensitive to limited language proficiency and cultural factors affecting reading and writing performance.

5. Cultural factors must be taken into consideration not only when designing a study, but also when analyzing the

data. In light of the findings in this research concerning standard English proficiency, further research among Native Americans that is designed to increase proficiency in standard English specific to the language arts is highly recommended.

6. Because of the dearth of research concerning the effects of journals and, specifically, USSW upon reading and writing proficiency, it is recommended that further research be conducted in this field.

7. Quantity of writing may not necessarily facilitate the quality of writing. Since the results indicated negative effects upon writing performance as a result of receiving 20 hours of USSW, it is recommended that further systematic research be conducted to investigate possible ways of increasing writing performance among Native Americans throughout Alaska and the Lower '48.

8. More studies are needed to determine the interaction of reading with writing and how those interactions combine to increase reading and writing proficiency.

9. More research concerning the effects of ethnic reading material specific to the culture is recommended.

10. In order to gain greater insight concerning the Alaskan Native/Indian schooling experience, it is further recommended that more ethnographic research such as conducted by educational anthropologists be conducted.

In conclusion, the purpose of this study was to explore the effects of USSR and USSR/USSW upon Alaskan

Natives/Indians attending high school. Throughout the study, it became increasingly apparent that meaningful activities obtained meaningful results and that meaning was shaped by culture.

Formed by our culture, we bring who we are to the learning environment. In seeking personal meaning, we attempt to find ourselves, for the purpose of learning is to learn about who we are in relationship to others and our environment.

Historically, however, education in an unfamiliar, and, many times, unfriendly world has not held great meaning for many Native Americans. Caught in transition between two worlds, it has been difficult to know what is relevant and to which culture one belongs since a culture in transition must continually question its identity. Although change is inevitable, too much change brings a loss of identity, and it is this affirmation of self that is so lacking among many Native peoples. James Welch (1981), a Blackfeet writer, sums it up beautifully in his poem, Plea to Those Who Matter:

> You don't know I pretend my dumb.
> My songs often wise, my bells could chase
> the snow across these whistle-black plains.
> Celebrate. The days are grim. Call your winds
> to blast these bundled streets and patronize
> my past of poverty and 4-day feasts.
>
> Don't ignore me. I'll build my face a different
> way,
> a way to make you know that I am no longer
> proud, my name not strong enough to stand
> alone.
> If I lie and say you took me for a friend,
> patched together in my thin bones,
> will you help me be cunning and noisy as the wind?

I have plans to burn my drum, move out
and civilize this hair. See my nose? I smash it
straight for you. These teeth? I scrub my teeth
away with stones. I know you help me now I
matter.
And I -- I come to you, head down, bleeding from
my smile,
happy for the snow clean hands of you, my
friends.

Learning must be relevant. It must have meaning, and it must affirm who we are as individuals. The thesis for this dissertation was chosen in the hope that reading and writing could be made more meaningful within a population that characteristically drops out of school and whose literacy skills are well below the national level.

The research points out that one of the keys in determining if something is meaningful, is whether or not the participants are enjoying the activity. What became patently obvious during this study was that if something was enjoyable, the students would do it; if it wasn't, they wouldn't. They clearly enjoyed USSR, and they did it; they didn't enjoy USSW; hence, they didn't do it.

Consequently, it is the continued hope of this researcher that we will constantly strive in education to reach those for whom learning in a formal environment is not meaningful and, in doing so, endeavor to make it enjoyable, meaningful and relevant.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

STUDENT READING RECORD

STUDENT READING RECORD

Code Number_____

Reading Selection During Each Session

Date_____

Title_____

Author_____

Pages Read_____

Place a checkmark by the type of reading material:

Novel_____ Fiction_____

Short Story_____ Non Fiction_____

Magazine_____

Poetry_____

Comic Book_____

Essay_____

Drama_____

To be filled out by the student at the end of each session and kept by the teacher in the student's personal file.

APPENDIX B

WRITING PROMPTS

PLEASE KEEP THIS IN YOUR JOURNAL

Suggestions of Things to Write About During Your Freewrite In Your Journal

---Describe a character from what you have read today.
    --Compare him/her to yourself
    --How do you visualize the character
    --What are the character's characteristics (friendly, mean, funny) and give examples
---Write about what you just read and then write how you would change it and why
---Is what you are reading about turning out the way you thought it would? Why? Why not?
---What new things did you learn about yourself? Others?
---Did you read something that confused you? Why?
    --I don't believe what I just read....
    --I wonder how I could have change it?....
    --Maybe I could....
---This doesn't make sense! I think....
---This guy/gal is really smart/dumb/funny/sad....
---If I were him/her, I would....
---I wish I were him/her, because....
---This reminds me of....
---This guy is like....
---I've always wanted to try....
---This author doesn't know what he's/she's talking about...
---I would never do....
---I used to know a guy/gal....This is how he/she is the same/different
---I like what I am reading because....
---This is boring because....
---I used to act like that but now....
---I wish I could be like this....
---This is how I would rewrite what I just read....
---This is how I would change the main character....
    --the setting....
    --the plot....
    --the conflict....
    --the resolution....
    --the ending....

*Feel free to write your innermost feelings, opinions, thoughts, likes, and dislikes. This is your journal. Feel the freedom to express yourself and your personal responses to reading through it.
*Don't worry about the accuracy of spelling and mechanics in the journal. The content and expression of your personal thoughts should be your primary concern. The journal will not be evaluated for a grade. Relax and share.
*Relate what you have read to your own experiences and share similar moments from your life or from books you have read in the past.
*Don't hesitate to wonder why, indicate surprise, or admit confusion concerning what you have read.
*Make predictions about what you think will happen as the

plot unfolds. Validate, invalidate, or change those predictions as you proceed in the text. Don't worry about being wrong.
*Put yourself in the character's place and share how you would act in a similar situation. Approve or disapprove of their values, actions, or behavior. Try to figure out what makes them react the way they do.
*Praise or criticize your book, the author, or the literary style. Your personal tastes in literature are important and need to be shared.
*There is no limit to the types of responses you may write. Your honesty in capturing your thoughts throughout the book is your most valuable contribution to the journal. These guidelines are meant to trigger, not limit, the kinds of things you write. Be yourself and share your personal responses to literature through your journal.

Adapted from: Hancock, M.R. (1992). Literature response journals: A journey through the mind of the reader. Kansas Journal of Reading, 8, 14-15.

APPENDIX C

ANALYTICAL RATING GUIDE

ANALYTICAL RATING GUIDE

IDEAS AND CONTENT

RECEIVES A RATING OF "5"

This paper is clear in purpose and conveys ideas in an interesting, original manner that holds the reader's attention. Often, the writing develops as a process of discovery for both reader and writer. Clear, relevant examples, anecdotes or details develop and enrich the central idea or ideas.

--The writer seems to be writing what he or she knows, often from experience.

--The writer shows insight--a good sense of the world, people, situations.

--The writing is often enlivened by spontaneity or a fresh, individual perspective.

--The writer selects supportive, relevant details that keep the main idea(s) in focus.

--Primary and secondary ideas are developed in proportion to their significance; the writing has a sense of balance.

--The writer seems in control of the topic and its development throughout.

RECEIVES A RATING OF "3"

The writer's purpose is reasonably clear; however, the overall result may not be especially captivating. Support is less than adequate to fully develop the main idea(s).

--The reader may not be convinced of the writer's knowledge of the topic.

--The writer seems to have considered ideas, but not thought things through all the way.

--Ideas, though reasonably clear and comprehensible, may tend toward the mundane; the reader is not sorry to see the paper end.

--Supporting details tend to be skimpy, general, predictable, or repetitive. Some details seem

included by chance, not selected through careful discrimination.

--Writing sometimes lacks balance: e.g., too much attention to minor details, insufficient development of main ideas, informational gaps.

--The writer's control of the topic seems inconsistent or uncertain.

RECEIVES A RATING OF "1"

This paper lacks a central idea or purpose--or the central idea can be inferred by the reader only because he or she knows the topic (question asked).

--Information is very limited (e.g., restatement of the prompt, heavy reliance on repetition) or simply unclear altogether.

--Insight is limited or lacking (e.g., details that do not ring true; dependence on platitudes or stereotypes).

--Paper lacks balance; development of ideas is minimal, or there may be a list of random thoughts from which no central theme emerges.

--Writing tends to read like a rote response--merely an effort to get something down on paper.

--The writer does not seem in control of the topic; shorter papers tend to go nowhere, longer papers to wander aimlessly.

ANALYTICAL RATING GUIDE

ORGANIZATION

RECEIVES A RATING OF "5"

The writer organizes material in a way that enhances the reader's understanding, or that helps to develop a central idea or theme. The order may be convention or not, but the sequence is effective and moves the reader through the paper.

--Details seem to fit where they're placed, and the reader is not left with the sense that "something is missing."

--The writer provides a clear sense of beginning and ending, with an inviting introduction and a satisfying conclusion ("satisfying" in the sense that the reader feels the paper has ended at the right spot).

--Transitions work well; the writing shows unity and cohesion, both within paragraphs and as a whole.

--Organization flows so smoothly that the reader doesn't have to think about it.

RECEIVES A RATING OF "3"

The writer attempts to organize ideas and details cohesively, but the resulting pattern may be somewhat unclear, ineffective, or awkward. Although the reader can generally follow what's being said, the organizational structure may seem at time to be forced, obvious, incomplete or ineffective.

--The writer seems to have a sense of beginning and ending, but the introduction and/or conclusion tend to be less effective than desired.

--The order may not be a graceful fit with the topic (e.g., a forced conventional pattern or lack of structure).

--The writer may miss some opportunities for transitions, requiring the reader to make assumptions or inferences.

--Placement or relevance of some details may be questionable (e.g., interruptive information; writer

gets to the point in roundabout fashion).

--While some portions of the paper may seem unified (e.g., organization within a given paragraph may be acceptable), cohesion of the whole may be weak.

RECEIVES A RATING OF "1"

Organization is haphazard and disjointed. The writing shows little or no sense of progression or direction. Examples, details, or events seem unrelated to any central idea, or may be strung together helter-skelter with no apparent pattern.

--There is no clear sense of beginning or ending.

--Transitions are very weak or absent altogether.

--Arrangement of details is confusing or illogical.

--There are noticeable information gaps; the reader is left dangling, or cannot readily see how the writer got from one point to another.

--The paper lacks unity and solidarity.

ANALYTICAL RATING GUIDE

WORD CHOICE

RECEIVES A RATING OF "5"

The writer consistently selects words that convey the intended message in an interesting, precise and natural way. The result is full and rich, yet not overwhelming; every word carries its own weight.

--Words are specific, accurate, and suited to the subject. Imagery is strong.

--Lively, powerful verbs give the writing energy, visual appeal, and clarity.

--Vocabulary may be striking, colorful, or unusual--but the language isn't overdone.

--Expression is fresh and appealing, fun to read. The writer uses cliches or slang sparingly, and only for effect.

--Figurative language, if used, is effective.

RECEIVES A RATING OF "3"

The writer's word choice is adequate to convey meaning, but the language tends toward the ordinary. The writer doesn't consistently reach for the "best" way to say something, but instead often settles for the first word or phrase that comes to mind. The result is a sort of "generic paper" that sounds familiar, routine, or commonplace.

--Language communicates quite well, but without a sense of satisfying fullness or power; the reader has the feeling it could have been written better.

--Imagery may be weakened by overuse of abstract, general language.

--Though the reader can interpret the meaning quite readily, some words lack precision or vigor.

--Attempts at the unusual, colorful or difficult are not always successful. The language may seem overdone or calculated to impress rather than natural.

--Though an occasional phrase may catch the reader's

eye, cliches, redundancies and hackneyed phrases pop up with disappointing frequency; there are few surprises or enticing twists.

RECEIVES A RATING OF "1"

The writer is struggling with a limited vocabulary, often grouping for words and phrases to convey meaning. Meaning may be difficult to determine (e.g., the writer says one thing but seems to mean another), or else the language is so vague and abstract that only the broadest, most general sorts of messages are conveyed.

--Writing is often characterized by monotonous repetition, overwhelming reliance on worn, threadbare expressions, or heavy reliance on the prompt (topic) itself for key words and phrases.

--Imagery is very weak or absent; the reader lacks sufficient concrete details to construct any mental picture.

--Words tend to be consistently dull, colorless and trite.

--In some instances, word choice may seem careless, imprecise, or just plain wrong.

ANALYTICAL RATING GUIDE

SENTENCE STRUCTURE

RECEIVES A RATING OF "5"

The paper is fluid and reads easily throughout. It has an easy-on-the-ear flow and rhythm when read aloud. Sentences have a strong and rhetorically effective structure that makes reading enjoyable.

--Sentence structure clearly conveys meaning, with no ambiguity.

--Writing sounds natural and fluent, with effective phrasing.

--Sentences are appropriately concise.

--Varied sentence structure and length add interest.

--Fragments, if used, are stylistically appropriate. They seem right.

RECEIVES A RATING OF "3"

Sentences are understandable, but tend to be mechanical rather than fluid. While sentences are usually correct, the paper is not characterized by a natural fluency and grace. Occasional flaws or awkward constructions may necessitate re-reading.

--Sentence structure sometimes clearly conveys meaning--and sometimes not.

--Some sentences lack energy, character or effectiveness (e.g., they may be hampered by awkward structure, unnecessary complexity, roundabout expression, wordiness, dangling modifiers, ineffective use of passive voice, or repetitious beginnings--"I did this," "I did that")

--Sentence variety (length or structure) tends to be more the exception than the rule.

--Fragments, if used, may sometimes be ineffective or confusing.

RECEIVES A RATING OF "1"

The writing is generally awkward and therefore hard to read aloud. It does not sound natural. Sentences tend to

be choppy, incomplete, or so rambling and irregular that it may be difficult to tell where one should end and the next begin.

--Because sentence structure frequently does not function to convey meaning, reader may pause several times to question what is meant.

--Sentences lack both fluency and correctness. The writer may not write in conventional sentences at all. Or, sentences may seem stiffly constructed, disjointed, endlessly meandering (e.g., many run-ons), or nonsensical.

--Short, choppy sentences relentlessly monotonous rhythms or patterns (e.g., subject-verb or subject-verb-object over and over) that produce a jarring or sing-song effect.

--Fragments are confusing or ineffective. Writer seems to have little grasp of how words fit together, or of where one idea logically stops and the next begins.

ANALYTICAL RATING GUIDE

WRITING CONVENTIONS

RECEIVES A RATING OF "5"

The writer's skillful use of standard writing conventions (grammar, capitalization, punctuation, usage, spelling, paragraphing) enhances readability. There are no glaring errors. In fact, while the paper may not be flawless, errors tend to be so minor that the reader can easily overlook them unless searching for them specifically. (Deliberate, controlled deviations from convention--in dialogue, for instance--are acceptable, provided they enhance the overall effect.

--Grammar (e.g., noun-verb agreement; noun-pronoun agreement; verb tense; forms of nouns, verbs, pronouns and modifiers) is essentially correct.

--Punctuation is smooth and enhances meaning. Informalities, such as dashes or contractions, are allowed.

--Spelling is generally correct, even on more difficult words.

--Usage is generally correct, or acceptable given the purpose of the writing. The writer avoids double negatives (e.g., couldn't hardly) and nonstandard usage (e.g., could of been, more better, she had ought to do it, irregardless, leave me figure this out). Informalities (e.g., you will find rather than the more formal one will find) are acceptable.

--Paragraphing (i.e., indenting) works in harmony with the inherent organization of the paper.

RECEIVES A RATING OF "3"

Errors in writing conventions are noticeable and begin to impair readability. Reader can follow what is being said overall, but may need to pause or re-read on occasion.

--Occasional problems in grammar disrupt the flow of the writing. For example, agreement may be inconsistent; or there may be shifts in tense, improper verb forms (e.g., lay down here), improper pronoun forms (theirselves, me and Jim will go), use of adjectives for adverbs (he did good), and so on.

--Punctuation, capitalization and spelling errors may

be sufficiently frequent or serious to momentarily distract the reader.

--Some usage problems (e.g., double negatives, use of nonstandard expressions such as irregardless) may be evident.

--Paragraphing is attempted, but paragraphs may not always begin at the right places. As a result, paragraph structure (indenting) does not always complement the paper's inherent organization.

RECEIVES A RATING OF "1"

Numerous errors in usage and grammar, spelling, capitalization and/or punctuation consistently distract the reader, taking attention away from the writer's message and severely impairing readability.

--The student shows very limited understanding of or ability to apply conventions.

--Errors in grammar and usage are frequent and tend to be very noticeable.

--Basic punctuation may be omitted, haphazard, or just plain wrong.

--Capitalization is often incorrect or highly inconsistent.

--Spelling errors tend to be frequent, even on common words.

--Paragraphing is illogical or arbitrary (e.g., paragraphs almost never seem to begin in the right places).

APPENDIX D

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH FORM

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 09-03-93 **IRB#:** ED-94-010

Proposal Title: THE EFFECTS OF SUSTAINED SILENT READING AND WRITING UPON THE READING AND WRITING PROFICIENCY OF ALASKAN NATIVE/INDIAN 9TH GRADERS

Principal Investigator(s): Kouider Mokhtari, Lana P. Elliott

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

APPROVAL STATUS SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING.
APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR ONE CALENDAR YEAR AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.
ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reasons for Deferral or Disapproval are as follows:

Signature:  Date: September 3, 1993

Chair of Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX E

CONSENT FORM

CONSENT FORM

Dear Participant:

Mt. Edgecumbe High school believes in providing the best education possible for its students. There are many factors that go into providing a quality education. One important factor is gaining a better understanding of the reading and writing habits and reading and writing attitudes of the students.

We know that good reading and writing habits help students to be successful learners. We also know that individuals who enjoy reading and writing for pleasure develop good reading and writing habits and attitudes. They also improve in reading comprehension and vocabulary as well as writing proficiency. However, many students do not read or write, so we want to find out if reading and writing for pleasure during school time will enhance the desire to read and write. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between reading and writing proficiency and attitude when students are given the time to read and write for pleasure. We want to find out if students will read and write more and with better understanding if given time in school to read whatever they want. The is called free reading. We also will explore the idea that reading and writing improves writing skills.

During your time in Social Skills class, some of you will be given time to read whatever you want throughout Fall Semester, 1993 and some of you will be asked to combine reading with writing. In order to determine your reading and writing proficiency at the beginning and end of the semester, you will be taking reading and writing assessments. You may be observed from time to time during your reading and writing time and informally interviewed.

The assessments that you take will not be graded; they are used only for the purpose of this project to determine your reading proficiency, writing skills, and general attitude about reading. You will not receive a grade for your Social Skills class based on the information from these tests. Your free reading and writing time is considered a gift from the school; consequently, your class grade will not be determined by your participation in this project.

Therefore, you will not be assessed over anything you have read during your free reading and writing time, nor will you be asked to give any oral reports.

You will be randomly assigned to one of three groups. Some of you will be doing only free reading, and some of you will be doing a combination of free reading and free writing. Others of you will be participating in another class as you would normally do during school time and not do any free reading or writing. Those of you participating in the combination of free reading and free writing will be asked to keep a journal concerning your ideas about what you are reading. Your journal will be uniquely yours. It will not be graded or corrected. It will be used by only you for the purposes of this study and will not be used by the teacher in determining your class grade. It will be used only to record your thoughts regarding what you have read during your free writing time.

All of you will be asked to keep personal records on special forms concerning what you are reading. All journals and the special forms will be kept in a secured file and will not be shared with anyone other than the researcher. At the beginning of the study, you will be given a code number that you will use on all your forms and journals. The code number will be used in place of your name so that everything may be kept confidential. All records and writings will be kept strictly confidential and will be destroyed at the end of the study.

Possible personal benefits from your participation may result in improved reading comprehension and vocabulary. In addition, you may come to enjoy reading and writing more which will prepare you to be more successful in school. As a result of free reading and writing, your writing skills may also improve. Because of the design and content of this project, the researcher anticipates no forseeable risks or discomfort as a result of your participation.

Information gained in this study will not be identified with specific individuals. Therefore, you will not receive your individual results. However, if you should choose to be informed of your specific results, please notify your teacher in writing and arrangements will be made for the researcher to explain your results to you.

We look forward to exploring how you might become a more proficient reader and writer and thank you for participating in this study. We ask that you please sign this consent form acknowledging that you have read and fully understand your responsibilities as a participant.

I fully understand the information as explained in this consent form and will participate in this study during Fall

Semester, 1993. I understand that I will be taking two reading tests, two reading attitude assessments, and two language mechanics tests as well as writing two paragraphs. I also understand that I will be observed and interviewed by the researcher periodically throughout the semester. I understand that I am guaranteed complete anonymity by participating in this study and will not receive individual results unless I specifically request them in writing. I understand that participation is voluntary and that there is no penalty for refusal to participate. I also understand that I am free to withdraw my consent to use data accumulated by this research project at any time without penalty after notifying the teacher advocate and the project director.

I may contact Lana P. Elliott by telephone number 907-747-6394 should I wish further information about the project. I may also contact Terry Maciula, University Research Services, 001 Life Sciences East, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK, 74078 or at telephone number 405-744-5700.

DATE_____TIME_____(a.m./p.m.)

SIGNED_____
Signature of Participant

- -

I certify that I have personally explained all elements of this form to the participant, his/her legal representative and the advocate before requesting the participant to sign.

DATE_____TIME_____(a.m./p.m.)

SIGNED_____
Signature of Project Director

- -

I certify that I have read this consent form and fully understand all the elements of this research project. As acting representative of the participant, I give my permission for its implementation among the three Social Skills classes at Mt. Edgecumbe High School during Fall Semester, 1993.

DATE_____TIME_____(a.m./p.m.)

SIGNED_____
Signature of the Legal Representative

APPENDIX F

QUESTIONNAIRE ON READING ATTITUDE

DIRECTIONS: THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS RELATE TO YOUR USSR TIME IN MR. LOVE'S CLASS. PLEASE RESPOND TO THE QUESTIONS IN WRITING. TAKE AS MUCH TIME AS YOU NEED.

1. Have you found yourself more willing to read your school assignments since beginning USSR? Why? Why not?

2. Do you like your USSR time? Why? Why not?

VITA 2

Lana P. Elliott

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE EFFECTS OF SUSTAINED SILENT READING AND WRITING UPON THE READING AND WRITING PROFICIENCY OF ALASKAN NATIVE/INDIAN NINTH GRADERS

Major Field: Curriculum and Instruction

Biographical: Born in Helena, Montana, the daughter of John A. and Doris Sterling Peterson

Education: Graduated from Browning High School, Browning, Montana, in May, 1958; received Bachelor of Science degree from Montana State University in 1962; received Master of Science degree from Oklahoma State University in 1987; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 1995.

Professional Experience: Secondary Education teacher in Spanish and Business, Great Falls Public High School, Great Falls, Montana, 1962-1966; Co-Principal K-12, King's Center, Big Lake, Alaska, 1980-1984; Elementary Teacher, King's Center, Big Lake, Alaska, 1980-1984; Adjunct Instructor, Rose State College, Reading and Developmental English, 1990; Midwest City, Oklahoma; Curriculum Development, Gifted and Talented American Indian High School Students, 1987-1989, American Indian Research and Development, Norman, Oklahoma; Teaching Assistant, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Oklahoma State University, 1985-1987 and 1990-1992; Director of Literacy and ESL, University of Alaska Southeast Adult Education Department, 1992-1993, Sitka, Alaska; Adjunct Professor, Education and Anthropology, University of Alaska Southeast, Sitka, Alaska, 1992-1994;

Adjunct Professor, Education and Anthropology, Sheldon Jackson College, Sitka, Alaska, 1992-1995; Presentations and Consultations throughout the United States, North American Indian Education Association, American Indian Regional Centers I-V, Public Schools, Title I Chapters, 1987-1994.

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 09-03-93 **IRB#:** ED-94-010

Proposal Title: THE EFFECTS OF SUSTAINED SILENT READING AND WRITING UPON THE READING AND WRITING PROFICIENCY OF ALASKAN NATIVE/INDIAN 9TH GRADERS

Principal Investigator(s): Kouider Mokhtari, Lana P. Elliott

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

APPROVAL STATUS SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING.
APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR ONE CALENDAR YEAR AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.
ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reasons for Deferral or Disapproval are as follows:

Signature: _____ Date: September 3, 1993
Chair of Institutional Review Board